

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MARITAL ADJUSTMENT AND JUNGIAN PSYCHOLOGICAL
TYPES OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

BY

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by

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The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were any significant relationships between marital adjustment and Jungian psychological types of married university students. By focusing on psychological types it was possible to provide information for couples and counselors about how differences in type may affect marital relationships which they could use to improve these. Special emphasis was placed on locating particular problem areas which might be type related.

The sample population included 89 couples of which at least one spouse was a student at the University of Florida, Winter Quarter, 1980. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was used to identify personality types and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (LWMAS) and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) were used to measure marital adjustment (MA). To these two scales was added an attitude scale which requested that the spouses rate the effect they believed the items on the LWMAS and DAS had on their present relationship. The five possible responses ranged from "frequently positive" to "frequently negative."

Two hypotheses were tested to see if there were any significant differences in MA when couples were grouped according to the number of

preferences they shared as measured by dichotomous and continuous scores on the MBTI. In all past studies, dichotomous scores had been used to determine whether or not couples were to be classified as similar on a preference. Since the use of dichotomous scores does not allow the strength of the preference to be taken into consideration, in this study similarity was also defined using continuous scores. A couple was considered similar on a preference if the difference in their continuous scores was less than two standard errors of measure (calculated from scores of this population). There were no significant differences in the MA of couples similar in one, two, three, or four preferences (no couples in the population shared zero preferences when dichotomous scores were used).

Two hypotheses were tested to see if there were any significant differences in MA when couples were grouped according to whether they were similar or different on a preference (extraversion-introversion, sensing-intuiting, thinking-feeling, and judging-perceiving). Both dichotomous and continuous scores were used and no significant differences were found.

A fifth hypothesis was tested to see if there were any significant differences in the perceived degree of influence (attitude response) on the marital relationship that each of the problem areas covered on the LWMAS and DAS had on the couple's relationship. The couples were grouped according to similarity or difference on each preference (based on dichotomous scores). Four groups were formed for each preference, e.g., on the EI preference, groups were both Es, wife E and husband I, wife I

and husband E, and both Is. Only on the JP preference were there significant differences on enough items (seven out of 37) to conclude that certain pairings had developed methods of handling potential problem areas so that the effect on the relationship was positive rather than negative.

Two Anovas were done to test whether any of the 16 psychological types reported significantly higher marital adjustment than other types and none were found.

It was concluded from the results of the present and other studies that the amount of similarity in psychological preferences of couples can not be used to predict marital adjustment. However the data do show that people tend to choose as mates those who are not totally similar or totally different from themselves (only 7 percent of the population was the same on all four preferences and none was different on all four when dichotomous scores were used). Both similarity and difference in psychological preferences between spouses seem desirable. Also based on the analysis of problem areas covered on the LWMAS and DAS, there is some evidence that matchings on JP preference will increase the couple's probability of not experiencing difficulties in that area.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades the people of the United States have been confronted with an increase in the number of marriages which end in divorce. People are experiencing unhappiness because they are unable to have fulfilling and satisfying relationships with their spouses. Many report physical, mental, and financial stresses which they attribute to a marital relationship which is filled with tension and conflict. They may experience a decline in productivity while they deal with their emotional and physical problems resulting from these stresses.

Some couples do not separate or divorce even though their relationship is unsatisfactory. They continue to live together in a non-loving, non-supportive life style. More than ever before these couples are seeking professional help to preserve and/or improve their marriages as evidenced by the increasing number of counselors who specialize in marital and family counseling. Other couples who find their relationship satisfying continue to search for ways to improve their interactions. Some of these couples attend marital enrichment workshops, while others read the articles and books being published on how to make one's marriage more satisfying.

People, both lay and professional, seem to be trying to understand what makes a marital relationship a loving, supportive one. In the last decade there has been a drastic increase in the amount of research being done in this area. However, the search continues as

the answers are not clear. This study investigated some interactional factors related to personality structure which seem to contribute to satisfactory/adjusted or unsatisfactory/maladjusted marital relationships.

Rationale for the Study

Scholars from many disciplines have contributed to the research in the area of marital satisfaction/adjustment. For instance, the sociologists have considered the cultural forces influencing the relationship, the psychodynamic psychologists have looked at the couples in terms of personality compatibility and need fulfillment, the phenomenological psychologists have investigated the perception one has of self and mate, the behavioral psychologists have examined the reciprocal behaviors of couples, the communication psychologists have studied the patterns of verbal and nonverbal interactions of the couple, and the typological psychologists have looked at which personality types seem to produce the most adjusted matches. This study used a typological approach in an attempt to see if some of the stresses coming from an unsatisfying marital relationship may be attributed to couples not being able to deal with differences in their personality preferences. This approach was chosen because it permits one to see the similarities in values, interests, and outlook on life which can be categorized while still recognizing the unique difference in each person and relationship. Jung (1921 / 1923), through close observation of people from many cultures, developed such a typology.

Jung (1921) developed a typology which described behavior in terms of two fundamental orientations to life, extraversion and introversion,

and what he considered four basic mental processes or functions: sensing and intuition, the two perceptive functions, and thinking and feeling, the two judgment functions. A wide range of attitudes, motivations and traits are postulated to develop as a result of the orientational preferences and functions of each type. A special value of Jung's theory is that it postulates different styles of normality, i.e., normal and understandable differences among people which can still cause misunderstandings and interpersonal difficulties. In 1962 Myers and Briggs published an instrument, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), designed to implement Jung's theory so that the ideas of type could be tested and put to practical use. To clarify further the differences that occur in the psychological types developed by Jung, Myers and Briggs added a fourth preference. This preference distinguishes preferred attitudes toward the outer world, i.e., perception (Myers, 1962). Results of the MBTI indicate people's personality type preferences by stating their preferred orientation to life (extraversion (E) or introversion (I), their preferred perceptive function (sensing (S) or intuiting (I), their preferred judgment function (thinking (T) or feeling (F), and their attitude toward the outer world (judgment (J) or perception (P)). The MBTI was the instrument used in this study to identify type preferences.

Need for the Study

Thus far research investigating the relationship of Jungian personality types and marital choice had suggested that happy marriages resulted when people chose mates that were similar in some but not all

of their preferences (Gray, 1949; Gray & Wheelwright, 1944; Breimeir, Note 1; Myers, Note 2; Williams, Note 3). Very little data had been collected on particular problems that tended to arise when certain combinations of types married. No studies had considered the strength of spouses' preferences in determining their similarity and difference from each other.

This study was needed to reconsider how much similarity in personality type preferences seemed to result in high adjusted marriages. A second need was to determine whether the results would be different if similarity was redefined to take into account the strength of the spouse's preferences. A third need in trying to understand marital relations was to search for problems which seem to be significantly related to differences in preferences.

Purpose of the Study

Using Jung's personality theory as a basis, this study proposed to analyze the effect that similarities and differences in personality types had on the satisfaction/adjustment of married couples. This was done by seeking answers to the following questions:

1. How many preferences are shared by those couples who seem to have adjusted/satisfying marriages?
2. Are there particular types who report the highest marital adjustment regardless of the type of their spouse?
3. Are there combinations of particular types which rank higher on marital adjustment than other combinations?
4. Are there particular problems which seem to result when there is a difference in one preference of personality type? For example, if an extravert marries an introvert, is there a higher probability they

will experience more problems in the area of friendships outside the marriage, than will spouses if they are both extraverts or both introverts?

Hopefully these answers will be useful to couples and counselors, many of whom are already using the results of the MBTI, to help them better understand type similarities and differences and the effect these similarities and differences have on relationships. With greater understanding of these, it is possible to use them constructively to improve relationships.

In an attempt to answer the proposed questions, couples who were married students or spouses of students were given the MBTI. This instrument measured their type preference. Marital satisfaction/adjustment was assessed through a questionnaire in which individuals evaluated their perception of the marital relationship. Marital adjustment was basically seen as having agreement between spouses in major value areas of life engaging in relationship enhancing activities and being happy with choice of mate and marital status. This population was chosen as it had some homogeneity in educational goals and tended to have similar living conditions. Also they were at an age when most marriages are begun. Differences in these areas could have produced confounding effects.

Definitions of Terms

1. Quality of a relationship: In the studies to be discussed many dimensions were used to describe the overall quality of a relationship: stable-unstable, happy-unhappy, adjusted-maladjusted, satisfied-

unsatisfied, and successful-unsuccessful. The dimension stable and unstable was most often used when describing marriages which were still intact as compared to those which were terminated or in which termination was being considered. Usually whether or not a marital relationship was defined as adjusted-maladjusted, satisfying-dissatisfying, or happy-unhappy was determined by answers the spouses gave on self-report, marital questionnaire--high scores meaning adjusted, satisfied, or happy and low scores meaning maladjusted, dissatisfied or unhappy.

Two such instruments were used in this study to determine the degree of marital adjustment, the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. A score of one standard deviation above the mean of the population was used as the criterion for high-adjustment and one standard deviation below the mean for low-adjustment.

The following are brief descriptions of terms related to the Jungian typology and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator which were used in this study:

2. Psychological type: preference type as described by Jung and as identified by MBTI.

3. Preference: a choice between two equally acceptable poles of an attitude or function.

4. A type: a person who identified by four letters denoting the preferred poles on the orientation to life, functions (perception and judgment) and attitude to outer world.

5. Orientation to life preferences:

extravert (E): main interest is in outer world of people and things

introvert (I): main interest is in inner world of ideas.

6. Perceptive preferences:

sensing (S): becoming aware of things directly through any of the five senses with the emphasis on immediate evidence

intuiting (N): becoming aware of things indirectly by way of the unconscious "with the emphasis on ideas or associations which the unconscious tacks onto the outside things perceived" (Myers, 1962, p. 2).

7. Judgment preferences:

thinking (T): judging primarily in an impersonal way between true and false

feeling (F): judging primarily in personal way between valued and not valued.

8. Attitude to outer world:

judgment: relating to outer world (with T or F function) with emphasis on planning and decision making

perception: relating to outer world (with S or N function) with emphasis on remaining flexible and gathering data.

9. Dichotomous (preference) score: the basic score used to describe each MBTI preference, made up of a letter denoting the direction of the preference, and a number denoting the strength of the preference. Only the direction of the preference is used in this study when dichotomous scores are used.

10. Continuous score: a transformation of preference scores as if there was no dichotomy, by setting a midpoint at 100 and subtracting the numerical portion of the preference score from 100 for preferences

E, S, T, and J, and by adding the numerical portion to 100 for preferences I, N, F, and P, e.g., an E(29) preference score would become a 71 continuous score while an I(29) preference score would become a 129 continuous score.

11. Similar: When using dichotomous scores, spouses are considered similar on a preference if they prefer the same direction on that preference. When using continuous scores they are considered similar if their scores are less than two standard errors of measures apart.

Organization of the Study

The organization of the remaining parts of this paper will consist of four chapters. Chapter II is a discussion of the review of literature and includes sections on socioeconomic and family influences, personality compatibility and needs fulfillment, behavioral roles, perception, communication, special problems of married college couples, theoretical background of Jung, Jungian type preferences and marital satisfaction research, and a summary. Chapter III contains the methodological data including hypotheses, population, instruments, procedures, statistical analyses, and limitations. The results of the study are presented in Chapter IV. A discussion of the results, limitations of the study, and implications for future research are included in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Marital adjustment has been studied from a variety of perspectives: socioeconomic and family influences, personality compatibility and needs fulfillment, perceptions of spouses of each other, behavioral role expectations and enactment, verbal and nonverbal communication patterns, and types of problems experienced in marriage. All of these perspectives will be presented as a preparation for the orientation of this paper which is typological. The two final sections will be on the theoretical background of Jung's typology and the research which has been done investigating the relationship of Jungian type preferences and marital adjustment.

Socioeconomic and Family Influences

Two major theories have been developed by sociologists in regard to mate selection: homogamy and propinquity. The homogamy theory states that those who are similar in areas described (e.g. physical appearance, values, traits, parental education) tend to marry. The theory of propinquity contends that people who share nearness in physical residence space, occupation, and recreational activities have undergone a similar socialization process and tend to marry each other.

These theories were tested as early as 1936 (Burgess and Cottrell) and 1938 (Terman). Data from these and later studies (Sullivan and Armstrong, 1974) showed that marital choice and satisfaction were affected by the following factors, ranked in descending order: 1) race, 2)

religious background, 3) ethnic origin, and 4) social status and propinquity. Other studies showed that choice and satisfaction were influenced by relationships with parents and parental modeling, while others have focused on the effect that the length of marriage and affects of the presence or absence of children on marital adjustment. This section will consider all of these factors.

Similarity of race as a factor in marital satisfaction has been the basis for several studies. Strauss (1946) found that one-half of the males and two-thirds of the females eliminated as a potential mate anyone of a different race. Others found that selection of someone of the same race tended to lead to more stable relationships (Glenn, Hoppe, & Weiner, 1974; Goode, 1956).

Religion as a factor in marital choice and satisfaction has been studied. Forty-two percent of the people surveyed by Strauss (1946) said they would not consider marrying anyone of a different faith. Ninety-one percent of the couples in Hollingshead's study (1950) had the same religious preference. For those in mixed religious marriages, the spouses appeared to have more conflicts and greater marital maladjustment (Landis, 1963). Other studies showed that the amount of religious involvement did correlate positively with marital happiness and stability for both spouses (Bartz & Nye, 1970; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Landis, 1963; Lee, 1977; Ort, 1950). On the other hand, one study indicated that religiosity only correlated with marital satisfaction for females (Herron, 1976) and another that religious training did not correlate significantly with marital happiness (Terman, 1938).

In considering the marriages of people of the same or different ethnic backgrounds, Kennedy (1942) found that 94 percent of Negroes, 90 percent of Jews, and 85 percent of Italians married people from the same ethnic group (called "in" marriages). The standard for "in" marriages was 66.7 percent, so these particular groups had a high propensity to marry people of "their own kind." Most of the couples married people who grew up within 20 blocks of each other, but even those who went outside their neighborhood to find a mate, 59 percent still married someone of the same ethnic background. Nelson (1942), using data from the 1930 census of another city, also found two-thirds of the marriages were endogamous. Hollingshead (1950) studied using couples from New Haven and concluded one could not separate religious affiliation and ethnic origin when looking at marriage patterns. He said that even if people changed ethnic groups, a person tended to marry someone of the same religious background though Catholics and Protestants were more likely to cross ethnic lines than were Jews.

The fourth socioeconomic factor that Sullivan and Armstrong (1974) mentioned as affecting marital satisfaction was social stratum. Hollingshead (1950) found that 58 percent of his sample married within the same class. When the adjacent class was added, the percent rose to 83. People who married within their social stratum tended to have more satisfactory marriages than those who married outside their stratum. Jorgenson (1977) stated results from six studies which showed that couples dissimilar in social background tended to engage in more frequent and intense marital conflict than did homogeneous couples. He attributed conflict to incompatible role expectations, interests, and major life

values. If people married outside their social level, lower level people tended to marry up and higher level people tended to marry down (Center, 1949). Festinger (1957) and Heider (1958) explained that problems arise when someone married down because people strive for cognitive consistency. People who marry down perceived they were not lucky enough to find someone in their own class, so they colored their perception of the marital reality in a negative direction in order to be consistent with their initial unhappiness at their "bad luck." According to two studies, this theory holds true only if the spouse who married down valued status and considered marriage as a way to advance; otherwise differences in social level made no significant difference in marital satisfaction (Jorgenson, 1977; Pearlin, 1975).

Studies have investigated the differences in marriages according to the stratum the mates come from. People from the lower status groups were less satisfied with their marriages and their marriages tended to be less stable (Bayer, 1968; Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Burchinal, 1965; Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960; Renne, 1970). Renne (1970) hypothesized the reason for this was that unskilled workers tended to have a more negative self image than other groups of men and their wives blame the husbands' inadequacies for their (wives') unhappiness. When considering the significance of the correlations between lower class marriage and marital satisfaction/stability, one must be aware that the confounding variable of age may be affecting this correlation. Studies have shown that people who marry at an early age have the poorest chance of marital stability (Bayer, 1968; Lee, 1977) and lower class people tend to marry younger than those of middle or upper class.

One important factor in determining one's social status is the level of education. In one sample, one-third of the males and two-fifths of the females said that marrying someone of equal educational background was crucial for them (Strauss, 1946). According to studies by Landis and Day (1945) and Hamilton (1929) people usually married people with the same level of education. Renne (1970) found those more likely to be dissatisfied with marriage were of low income and little education. Terman (1938) looked at females separately from males and discovered that females were more likely to be happy if they married a man with more education than themselves and to be less happy if they married a man with less education.

In relation to stability of marriage, results have shown that college educated people who were unhappy with their marriage tended to divorce at a higher rate than those who had a grammar school education and are unhappy (Landis, 1963). Burchinal's (1965) study concluded that low education level couples have less stable marriage. Glenn and Weaver (1978) who studied only males, discovered that their divorce rate varied in an inverse monotonic fashion with their level of education, while Bumpass and Sweet (1972) and Udry (1966) discovered that females' divorce pattern was curvilinear. Higher educated people were more likely to divorce than those with high school education. Bergen and Bergen (1978) did not study divorce patterns, but did find that the perceived quality of marriage decreased for those who continued their education beyond their BA degree. Gurin et al. (1960) stated that for people with more education there may be more stress in a marriage but also a greater chance of more satisfaction in the relationship than those who have less

education. They hypothesized that this happened because higher educated people tended to make marriage central in their lives.

Thus far, the research exploring the effects of race, religiosity, ethnic and class background and education all tend to support the homogamous theory for choice and potential success of the relationship. This theory also has been verified if the values of the mates are considered (Baber, 1936; Bowerman, 1953; Burgess & Cottrell, 1939; Burgess & Locke, 1953; Burgess & Wallin, 1963; Heath, 1977; Hill & Aldous, 1969; Hoffman, 1970; Katz & Hill, 1958; Landis & Day, 1945; Stuckert, 1963; Urdy, 1966, 1967). From these results it has been concluded that shared group values are more important in mate selection than idiosyncratic individual experiences.

There is some evidence that the longer the relationship is in existence, the greater the similarity in values. The engaged couples in Murstein's study (1970a) were shown to have a greater than chance similarity with regard to their hierarchy of values concerning marriage than did those couples who were just going steady. Uhr (1957) found that couples were more similar in values after 18 years of marriage than they were when they were engaged. However, Keeley (1955) did not find this to be true.

If, in fact, people do marry those who hold similar values, the next question becomes, "Does the similarity in values result in marital happiness?" Keeley (1955) found only a moderate positive relationship between overall value convergence and marital satisfaction but found a great value convergence among married couples on the values they defined or considered to be most important. Well adjusted couples showed a greater similarity in instrumental and terminal values than did maladjusted

couples in one study (Martin, 1975) but not in another (Frank, 1975).

According to Burgess and Wallin (1953) whether or not there is similarity of values and interests is not the appropriate question for research. Rather, researchers should be considering whether or not values and interests are mutually stimulating and promote individual personality development as well as the degree to which they bind the couple together.

Parental influence has something to do with all the areas discussed above, viz., race, religiosity, ethnic and class background, educational level and values, but there are other ways in which the parents influence marital choice of a person. These are basically through the manipulation of the environment and by the quality of the relationship they have with the child.

According to a study by Sussman (1953), parents used two basic methods of influencing their child's choice of a mate:

1. providing a social milieu for proper dating
2. using persuasion and threats to withdraw economic support should the child indicate a desire to marry someone not approved of by the parents (usually someone outside their class).

In this study only eight out of 195 children married against their parents' wishes.

Burgess and Wallin (1953) concluded that family background was of little practical significance when looking at marital happiness. However they listed these family background factors as being the most predictive of marital happiness:

1. childhood happiness
2. lack of conflict between mother and father
3. strong attachment with both parents
4. parental frankness about sex
5. infrequent and mild childhood punishment
6. a home description of firm but not harsh discipline.

Popenoe (1943) said that if the parents' marriage was rated as happy by their child, then the child usually rated his own marriage as happy. Terman and Bultenwieser (1935) found that a person who had a strong attachment to his parents and little conflict with them tended to describe his own marriage as being happier than one who did not have the attachment and who had more conflict with his parents. Eirich-Cohen (1973) said if the male was more closely identified with his mother than his father, his marital satisfaction was negatively affected.

Many researchers have investigated the similarity of spouses to parents. There has been very little evidence that spouses physically resemble parents (Strauss, 1946) but Hamilton (1929) stated, based on his results, that wives did physically resemble the husband's mother. On the other hand, people did pick spouses that resembled their parents in temperamental traits and values (Strauss, 1946). He found that men's wives and their mothers were more closely similar than women's husbands and their fathers. Koch (1976) said that 90 percent of his sample perceived themselves and their spouses as being similar to one or both of their parents. A sample of wives in adaptive marriages (stable and satisfying) perceived their husbands to be similar to their fathers (Nelson, 1977). In this study, maladaptive wives perceived themselves and their

husbands as being like their mothers while adaptive wives saw themselves as being similar to both parents. According to Luckey (1960b), if the males in her study perceived themselves and their fathers as being similar, they also perceived their marriages as being more satisfying than those males who did not see themselves as being as similar to their fathers. Strauss (1946) stated one caution in studying similarity of spouse, self, and parents: one must take into consideration the quality of the relationship the person had with the parents.

The influences of the childhood family on mate selection and marital satisfaction have been discussed. There are also some other variables related to the marriage itself which seem to correlate with marital satisfaction. These are the length of the marriage and the presence or absence of children. Rollins and Feldman (1970) have broken the life of a marriage into eight segments which are:

1. beginning families	0-5 years and no children
2. childbearing families	children age range from 0-2.11 years
3. families and preschoolers	children age range from 3-5.11 years
4. families with school age	children age range from 6-12.11 years
5. families with teenagers	children age range from 13-20.11 years
6. launching	first child gone - last child leaves
7. middle years	empty nest - retirement
8. aging	retirement - death

According to results from 12 studies (Rollins & Feldman, 1970) and subsequent studies (Clifford, 1977; Cronkite, 1976; Jordan, 1976), marital satisfaction fluctuated over the family cycle. Whether the curve of marital satisfaction is linear or curvilinear over the length

of marriage is a debated question. Blood and Wolfe (1960) and Rollins and Feldman (1970) found the relationship to be curvilinear while others (Bowerman, 1957; Burgess and Wallin, 1968; Lang, 1932; Luckey, 1966) said there was a gradual decline over the life cycle especially while the children were in the home. Burr (1970) stated there were different curves for different samples. Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) and Mathews and Milhanovich (1963) did not find support of the linear decline relationship.

In 12 of these studies the lowest marital satisfaction for wives was recorded in the third or fourth stages and generally the wives' marital satisfaction was lower than the husbands' during the stages when the children were at home. Renne (1976) found that for both spouses marital satisfaction was lower if they were active parents (compared to former parents or childless couples) regardless of the duration of the marriage or the wife's age or employment status. Clifford (1977) found that not only the stage of the family life cycle, but also the number of children correlated with marital satisfaction. When there were zero or three children there was more marital satisfaction than when there were one or two. There has been some hypothesizing that when children leave the home (stage 7) there would be a drop in marital satisfaction especially with females. Marcus (1979) found no evidence to support this.

Rollins and Cannon (1974) cautioned against seeing the family cycle as accounting for much of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of marriage. They concluded only 8 percent of the variance in marital satisfaction can be attributed to the family cycle.

Personality Compatibility and Needs Fulfillment

There exists conflicting theories of mate selection when the choice is viewed in terms of compatibility and/or need fulfillment. The question is "Do people choose a mate who is similar or opposite to them in their needs or in the intensity of the need they have?" There is general agreement with the homogamy theory that people marry those with similar background factors, interests, and attitudes and that these marriages tend to be more satisfying than marriages which are heterogenous in these areas. The differences in theory come when one considers the factors within the "defined field of eligibles."

One group of investigators contend that people choose mates who have similar need patterns while another group says they choose those who are complementary in need patterns. The complementary theory was proposed by Winch (1955). He hypothesized that a person picks a mate who will gratify needs that he does not satisfy by himself. The complementarity can happen in one of two ways:

1. the mate has a different degree of the same need
2. the mate has needs of a different kind.

To examine his hypothesis, Winch used a sample of 25 married college couples. Four techniques were used to gather information about 44 sub-variables:

1. need interview which contained structured questions
2. case-history interview
3. eight TAT cards
4. Cattrell's 16PF.

He obtained results supporting his hypothesis from an analysis of the

need interviews and from a full case conference in which five analysts considered all the data and agreed on a final set of ratings for each subject's needs (Winch, 1958). However, the data from the case history interviews and TAT responses showed the directionality of distribution was opposite to what Winch had hypothesized. Tharp (1963a) has challenged the research techniques and conclusions drawn by Winch. Nevertheless, from cluster and factor analysis of his data, Winch and others (Ktsanes, 1955; Roos, 1957; Winch, Ktsanes & Ktsanes, 1955) continue to maintain that there exist at least two basic complementary need patterns operating in marriages. These occur on the dominant-submissive and nurturant-receptive dimensions.

Since Winch proposed his theory, many others have attempted to verify or refute it. Most of these studies have used the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule as the measuring instrument. The people using this instrument contend it measures some of the same needs that Winch measured (Bowerman & Day, 1956). Winch (1967) in a counter attack said that the EPPS had no validity for measuring needs. From studies using the EPPS, the evidence does not support the complementary theory (Bowerman & Day, 1956; Katz, Glucksberg, & Krauss, 1960; Lu, 1952; Saper, 1965; Schellenberg & Bee, 1960).

In another study of newlyweds, Bentler and Newcomb (1978) found in stable marriages that males tended to be introverted and vulnerable while females tended to be extraverted and invulnerable. These were the only traits in which there was a negative correlation between spouse. From this evidence he concluded that there was no clear evidence to support or refute the complementarity theory. However he did find

significant evidence to support the homogamous theory, both in demographic areas and in personality characteristics. Urdy (1963, p. 289) stated it this way: "there is no evidence that one's need structure leads one to perceive traits in a mate opposite to one's own." Winch (1957) would counter by saying he was measuring unconscious motivation as well as conscious so it is possible that conscious perceptions were not consistent with unconscious motivations (needs).

Three studies gave partial support to the complementary theory on a population of 19 engaged couples and the theory was supported in only seven out of 16 comparisons. The males were significantly higher than females on dominance, achievement, and endurance while the females were significantly higher than males on nurturance, affiliation, and abasement. Murstein (1967) found only one result favoring complementarity and four opposing. The one favoring was in dominance. Blumenfeld (1978) found the same was true in his study with couples in which there was high dominance in husbands and low dominance in wives reporting more marital adjustment. He concluded that some needs require complementarity while others homogeneity and that the non-newlywed couple's data supported the homogamous theory. Ammons (1978) with 72 couples, who were classified as coming from strong family units and as reporting a high degree of marital vitality, found there was complementarity in six out of the possible 16 comparisons. In a later study (1972a), Murstein reversed his position and supported Winch's theory except in the dimension of dominance.

Other researchers have added the dimension of self acceptance in considering whether one chooses on the basis of similarity or oppositeness

of needs. Puckett (1977) hypothesized that low self actualizing people would be more likely to need a complementary relationship than high self actualizing people. His hypothesis was supported for only three out of ten variables for low self actualizing people and two out of ten for high self actualizing people. Some support for this theory was found by Murstein (1970) when he found in 98 unmarried couples that 1) couples possessed a similar degree of self acceptance and 2) perceived their mate as "similar" if they were high on self acceptance and "different" if they were low on self acceptance. Goodman (1964) found high self-accepting people married people similar to them on traits of dominance, nurturance, and succorance while low self-accepting people were complementary on dominance, dominance-deference, nurturance, and succorance.

When considering these needs in relationship to marital satisfaction, Water (1975) found that there was no difference between functioning and nonfunctioning couples in needs but there was in marital role and general relationship variable. Katz et al. (1960) found wives high in marital satisfaction were married to males similar to them on nurturance and succorance while husbands high in marital satisfaction were married to females less similar to them on achievement and succorance than were males expressing low marital satisfaction; however, Pascal (1974) did not find support for Katz's results at a significant level.

Cattell and Nesselroade (1967) from their study of couples developed a theory similar to Winch's which contends that people seek partners with much the same set of desirable traits but ones who have

more of the traits they believe they lack. Meck (1977), who replicated this study, did not find as many significant correlations. In both studies, the spouses of stable marriages differed on an extraversion/introversion dimension and were similar on being either toughminded or overprotective and dependent.

In summary, there is no clear evidence as to whether or not a person marries a person who has similar or different needs from oneself. Research in this area is very complex and Rosow (1957) warns against taking an atomistic position and contends that a need can be looked at only within the total personality organization. He believes that a distinction between strong and peripheral needs will have to be considered as well as a person's internal conflicting needs. He would support the development of a "total score to indicate the number of good fits in a series of individual need categories" (Rosow, 1957, p. 228). The ideas of Carl Jung related to need fulfillment will be discussed in a later section.

Much research has been done investigating what traits people want their spouses to have. Burgess and Wallin (1953) contended that personality traits "appear to be perhaps the single most important factor in selecting a mate" (p. 115). Urdy (1963) stated the same idea in this way: the traits of the perceiver which most influence his mate's perception represent the most important needs to be gratified in the couple's interaction. It appears that people raised in the same culture or subculture manifest considerable agreement on the kind of needs they wish and expect to be fulfilled in a marriage. Reiss (1960) has developed a theory of mate selection which he calls the Wheel Theory. He

hypothesizes that "cultural background produces certain types of personality needs in particular groups of people, and when these people meet other groups of people which have similar or complementary backgrounds they feel rapport, reveal themselves, become dependent, and thereby fulfill these personality needs" (p. 143).

What were some of these needs? Strauss's study (1947) showed these needs in order by sex:

Males	Females
love me	love me
confide in me	confide in me
appreciate my goals of achievement	show me affection
respect my ideal	help me make important decisions
show me affection	be someone I can look up to

In data collected in 1939 by Hill (1945), the people said (by sex) these were the traits they believed to be indispensable in choice of a mate: for both sexes: dependable character, emotional stability and maturity, pleasing disposition, mutual attraction/love, good health, desire for home and children, refinement/neatness, ambition/industriousness; females also sought husbands with education and general intelligence; and males looked for wives who were chaste and were good cooks and housekeepers. In a replication study in 1958, McGinnis (1958) found two changes in rank; chastity went down three ranks and similar religious background and interests came up three. A second replication was done in 1967 by Hudson and Henze (1969) with these changes occurring over the period from 1939 to 1966: male desire for chastity in females declined,

emphasis on good looks increased, ranking of health decreased, and ranking of mutual attractiveness and similar educational background increased. A similar study, which not only considered differences between males and females but between rural and urban populations, found all people to be similar in desiring a future mate to be dependable/honest, faithful/loyal in marriage, considerate/understanding, have pleasant personality and disposition, be emotionally mature, and have a good sense of humor. As in the other studies, males ranked chastity higher than females did, and urban males rated sexual responsiveness but did not rate dependable/honest as highly as did rural males.

These studies support the hypothesis that there is a basic similarity over time and between sexes of the traits people most want their mates to possess. Men do seem to value chastity, physical attractiveness and housekeeping abilities in their mates more than females do. Females value intelligence and ambition in their mates more than males do. Some traits which were ranked highly in all studies were maturity, pleasant personality and dependability. Other traits mentioned were good sense of humor, faithfulness, mutual attractiveness, good health, desire for children, and personal neatness.

The investigators just discussed have researched mate selection by asking people what traits they desired in mates. Another approach has been to investigate a person's image of an ideal mate as compared to the actual mate. When describing their ideal mate both males and females listed pleasant personality and intelligence as two traits desired; beauty/good looks was frequently listed by males (55 percent) and not by females (36 percent); and understanding (52 percent) and ambitious/

industriousness (53 percent) were frequently listed by females but not for males (36 percent and 11 percent respectively) (Prince, 1961). Another study (Williamson, 1965) found agreement in males and females on desires for mates to make a good parent, have high level of education, enjoy home life, and have similar interests. In all these cases, females rated desired traits more frequently than did males. Perhaps this demonstrated that females are more demanding in the traits they expect their mates to have or are less satisfied with mates or selves.

Characteristics which were frequently listed as not desired in their ideal mate were selfishness/inconsiderateness; lacking personal cleanliness; and low moral standards. For the men lack of homemaking ability was also considered undesirable and for females, conceit and lack of ambition were listed as undesirable (Prince, 1961). In another study both females and males said they would reject a person if he had neurotic tendencies or were divorced. Females would reject a male if he had less education or was a religious nonbeliever. Males would reject females who had had wide sexual experiences or were not good looking (Williamson, 1965).

Urdy (1967) found that if a male perceived his fiancee to be emotionally unstable, more conventional than Bohemian and more controlled than lax, he tended to break the engagement rather than marry the female. Females broke the engagement if they perceived the fiance to be over casual, undependable or too conscientious. However Urdy (1963, 1964, 1967) warned that from his results based on groups one could not predict which engaged couples would marry based on personality variables.

Perception

Phenomenological psychologists believe that the most important determinants of people's feelings, thoughts, and behavior are their perceptions of their relationship to their environment. In terms of marital happiness, the similarity of the wife's perception of her husband with his perception of himself was significantly related to marital satisfaction. There was no significant relationship between marital satisfaction and the similarity between the husband's perception of the wife and her perception of herself (Luckey, 1960b; Swan, 1953; Taylor, 1967). Kind (1976) found this to be true when the wife predicted the level of aggressiveness and skepticism of her husband's self description. From these studies and their own, Heiss (1962) and Stuckert (1963) concluded that it is important for marital satisfaction for the wife to know her husband but not vice versa. Bernard (1966), Burgess and Cottrell (1936), Burgess and Wallin (1953) and Landis and Day (1945) concluded that the woman must make the greater adjustment in marriage. It is she who must get to know her husband and understand his perceptions.

Similarity has also been studied by comparing the responses of the mates on various tests. When the similarity of responses of the couples was compared with the similarity of responses of random pairs, one study showed a greater similarity in the couple's responses (Murstein, 1972b, using modified Rorschach). On the other hand, Corsini (1956a, using a Q sort) did not find a greater similarity in couples than in random pairs. When Urdy (1963) looked at one's perception of himself and the mate's perception of him, no significant relationship was obtained.

The ability of spouses to predict the responses of their partners was established to have a positive correlation with marital satisfaction (Dymond, 1954; Ferguson & Allen, 1978; Newmark, Woody & Ziff, 1977). Sorenson (1975) obtained similar results when couples were divided into groups according to whether or not they were seeking marital counseling. However these results were not supported when the groups were non-therapy couples versus random pairing.

If mates perceived their spouses to be high in qualities of androgyny (Morehouse, 1978), warmth and responsiveness (Kotlar, 1965), an above average performer of marital role (Kotlar, 1965), high in dependence needs (Smith, 1972), and equal in power (Fisch, 1975), they also tended to rate their marital satisfaction as high. On the other hand, Glick (1976) did not find perception of support during conflict resolution to be significantly correlated with marital satisfaction. What was significantly correlated with marital satisfaction was the similarity of the spouse's rating of support.

Some research has shown that marital adjustment has been positively correlated with congruency in spouses' self reports of personal-ity similarity (Corsini, 1956b; Dymond, 1954; Hurly & Silvert, 1966; Kelly, 1941; Preston, Peltz, Mudd & Frescher, 1952). However Hurly and Silvert (1966) have suggested that certain incongruities may positively contribute to marital adjustment. Walter (in Hurly & Silvert, 1966) stated that for couples in therapy there was not an increase in congruence of traits while there was an increase in marital satisfaction. He hypothesized that the increase in marital satisfaction was probably related to the spouses being able to tolerate differences in perception.

A hypothesis for why spouses who are satisfactorily married are likely to rate themselves and their partners as similar is that most people tend to project on to others the same responses they would make about themselves. This idea was supported by Byrne and Blaylock (1963) who stated that there was a tendency for couples to distort the amount of similarity and report more than there really was. However, if individuals felt estranged from their mates, there was a greater tendency toward an amplification of the differences with mates.

Another interesting finding in the area of perception was that people in a happy marriage tended to rate their spouses higher than themselves and higher than the spouse rated him/her self on various positive attributes (Hall & Taylor, 1976; Kelly, 1941; Valle & Marinelli, 1975). Unhappily married couples underevaluated their shortcomings and overevaluated their spouse's shortcomings (Manson & Lerner, 1962).

In summary, the most happily married couples perceived themselves as being similar to their spouses but this similarity was not essential for happiness according to some studies. If the couple dealt effectively with their differences, their relationship was satisfying. There was some evidence to support the idea that the wife must make more of an adjustment in marriage. She must be able to perceive accurately her husband's responses but not vice versa. For both sexes there was a tendency in satisfying marriages for the spouses to rate their mates higher than themselves on positive qualities. This may be another effect of the need of people to produce socially desirable answers or an effect of a need for people to project qualities they admire or desire for themselves onto their mates.

Behavioral Roles

Clearly connected to perception of traits is one's perception of behavior. Role theory (Sarbin and Mangus in Tharp, 1963a) hypothesizes that the amount of success in a marital relationship depends on the amount of discrepancy between role expectations and role enactment. Upon entering a mating relationship spouses have expectations of how they think the other should function in the relationship. Generally two types of roles are considered: instrumental and expressive. Instrumental roles are defined as those which are necessary in order for the relationship to survive as a social and economic unit. Expressive roles are defined as those which maintain interpersonal attraction between husband and wife by conveying acceptance, affection, and approval.

According to Hewitt's study (1958) there is a change in role expectations during courtship and from courtship to marriage. However two other studies showed that role expectations for married couples remained reasonably stable over the years (Hill, 1945; McGinnis, 1958). These researchers did find a difference in expectations according to the sex of the person. These differences correlated with the differences found in traits desired which were discussed in the last section. Research has shown that there is a difference between the sexes in the relative importance that instrumental and expressive roles have in achieving marital happiness. The wife's role responsibility was more heavily weighted in the expressive area and the husband's in the instrumental area (Langhorne & Secord, 1955). Wills, Weiss and Patterson (1974) found wives emphasized affective behavior more than the husband and that they considered affective but not instrumental role enactment to account

for daily marital satisfaction. Tharp expressed it this way: "The wife, whose role responsibility is socioemotional, wishes a husband who will work with her in an atmosphere of loving intimacy; the 'instrumental' husband wishes a wife, who, through her attractiveness and efficiency, implements his responsibility for instrumental success (1963b, p. 113).

When considering discrepancies between overall expectations and enactments, studies have demonstrated there was less marital adjustment among those spouses who reported greater discrepancies (Frank, Anderson, & Rubenstein, 1979; Hooley, 1976; Luckey, 1960a; Mangus, 1957). Similar results were found by Hobart (1976) in studying conditions for divorce. Divorcing couples perceived the great amount of disharmony produced by nonshared attitudes and expectations as a cause for failure in their relationship. Lefkowitz (1974) in studying college married students found discrepancies between ideal role expectancies and actual role enactment to be the most important distinguishing predictor between "at risk," "borderline," and "well adjusted" marriages. Dating couples with poor courtship progress had high expectations and low perceived satisfaction of these expectations. These discrepancies were established to be a more significant factor in marital adjustment than the level of companionship expected from the marriage (Griffith, 1978). Ort (1950) and Schultz (1978) concluded that marital happiness was dependent on each spouse playing the role expected of him or her. McCurdy (1978) found that couples who strongly adhered to a traditional role relationship had greater marital satisfaction and fewer problems regardless of their ethnic background. Stuckert (1963) found that marital satisfaction was

significantly related to the degree of similarity of husband and wife on views of role expectations. He added that inaccuracy in perception of a mate's expectations and enactment did not result in dissatisfaction if the person defined his marriage as being typical of marriages in general. In another study it was the perception of the husband as being above average in fulfilling his marital role (both husband's and wife's perception) and not the congruence of spouse's perception of marital roles which was important to marital satisfaction (Kotlar, 1965). Frank (1975) did find that perceived similarity in role expectation did increase the wife's chances of believing she was in a happy marriage relationship. In this study and one done by Murstein and Beck (1972), the most important factor in marital satisfaction was the accuracy with which the wife perceived the marital expectations of her husband (not vice versa).

Hurvitz (1965) used results from his study to justify the statement that there was no clear cut association between control roles, marital strain, role division, and marital adjustment. Burr (1971) stated "discrepancies between role expectations and role behavior influence on marital satisfaction are mediated by subjectively perceived importance of these various discrepancies" (p. 368). Even though the importance variable does mediate, its use does not explain the additional discrepancies.

A study related to role expectation and enactment was done by Paige (1977) who divided 115 couples into four groups according to their responses on two role behavior inventories. These groups were 1) both androgynous, 2) wife androgynous and husband sex typed, 3) husband androgynous and wife sex typed, and 4) both sex typed. There was no significant difference in marital satisfaction rating among groups.. Using similar

groups, Simms (1979) found that there was a trend (not significant) in the 30 couples she studied for sex-typed spouses to report higher marital satisfaction and better communications.

Behavioral therapists, Azrin, Naster and Jones (1973) have developed a theory similar to role theory. They contend that marital discord is a result of non-reciprocated reinforcement. In therapy they work to get spouses to reinforce behaviors which they need for their happiness and to engage in behaviors which the spouse enjoys. When couples were able to do this their marital satisfaction increased.

In considering role enactments, one variable has received special attention: the effect that a woman working outside the home has on marital satisfaction. The evidence in this area is not one sided. In 1949, Locke and Mackeprang found no significant difference in marital adjustment of wives (or their husbands) who engaged in full time employment and those engaged in full time homemaking. In 1961 (Nye) and in 1963 (Gover) found lower marital happiness if wives worked. If she worked full time, marital happiness was lower than if she worked only part time. In 1969 (Orden & Bradburn) the data showed that if the woman had to work then both the husband and the wife reported lower marital happiness but if she chose to work, marital happiness was adversely affected only if there were pre-school children in the family. In 1976 (Burke & Weir in Booth, 1977) the results showed that husbands of working wives were in poor health and were less content with their marriage than were husbands of nonworking wives. However, in 1977 (Booth) a replication study was done which removed what was considered to be procedural and methodological deficiencies in Burke and Weir's study and it was

found that the husbands of working women evidenced no more signs of marital discord and stress than did spouses of housewives. In 1978, Rowe, using only a population of post parental couples, found that there was no significant difference in marital adjustment between couples involved in traditional marriages (wife not working) and dual career marriages. In 1978 the question "are working women more satisfied?" was investigated. There was no significant evidence to answer this positively or negatively (Wright, 1978).

Looking at the question of marital satisfaction and working women from a different perspective, Bailyn (1970) found that the attitude of the couple's circle of social contacts toward the woman working was an important influence. Landis and Day (1963) investigated the stability of marriage and its relationship to wives working. If the wife was employed and unhappy in marriage, the marriage was usually terminated, but if she was unemployed and unhappy, the couple tended to stay together.

The person's perception of what roles a mate should assume in the marital relationship and the ability of the mate to fulfill these roles have been shown to correlate with marital satisfaction. As in other areas, the female's ability to fulfill these roles may be more important than the male's. At this time, with the advent of women's liberation, there was little evidence to support the hypothesis that marriages are happier if the behavior of the spouses is androgynous rather than sex stereotyped. Also whether or not a woman worked did not appear to affect marital adjustment unless this behavior was not perceived as acceptable to spouse or friends or there were young children in the family.

Communication

Communication is a form of behavior which has been the primary focus of many studies related to marital relationships. Communication studies have dealt with how different styles of verbal and nonverbal behavior affect marital interactions. In the area of verbal communication, the emphasis has been placed in two areas: one is the expression of affection and support and willingness to share thoughts and feelings and the second is the decision-making techniques used by couples, especially in conflict situations.

Evidence has supported the hypothesis that expressing affection and support is very important to marital happiness (Fineberg & Lowman, 1973; Morse, 1973). Foire and Swenson (1977) found there to be no significant difference between functioning and dysfunctioning couples in their expectations as to the expression of love in marriage, but did find that the functional couples expressed significantly more love. They did this by showing affection, by disclosing intimate facts about themselves, and by providing moral support and encouragement for each other. Both groups received less love than they had hoped for.

The evidence of the effect of full communication (large amount of self disclosing) on marital happiness was not as clear as it was with the expression of affection and support. Navran (1967) and Levinger and Senn (1967) reported that disclosure of feelings was positively correlated with good feelings toward spouse and the relationship. Similar results were found by Freed (1975) and Webb (1972). Perlow and Mullins (1977) concluded that the more couples communicated, the more congruity and less frustration they experienced in their marriage. On the other

side, Cutler and Dyer (1965) found that communication did not always lead to adjustment.

When Boyd and Roach (1977) investigated the differences in communication skills between the most satisfied and least satisfied couples, they found the most satisfied sent clear, direct messages, engaged in active listening, and sent verbal expressions of respect or esteem for spouses. With newly married couples who had lived together before marriage and had made decisions in a haphazard way while living together (avoiding dealing with many differences between them), there was a high degree of dissatisfaction with their relationship after they married (Purcell, 1976). They expected decisions to be made as they were in their parents' homes, and when this did not occur, they engaged in fault-finding and blaming maneuvers.

In conflict situations, a person can choose to avoid or approach the threatening stimuli. Those who avoided the threatening stimuli reported higher marital adjustment scores than those who approached the stimuli (Day, 1973). However some balance between avoidance and approach seemed desirable since those with small differences between the two scores had higher marital adjustment scores than those with large differences. Ort (1950) contended that the spouse who resorted to either aggression or avoidance of issues tended to be less happy than those who discussed issues. The difference in the two studies may be that Day did not define the techniques used during approach. The mate may have been seen by the spouse as being aggressive.

In the area of decision-making, those couples who used mutual give and take and were conciliatory and supportive, experienced happier

marriages (Barry, 1970; Locke, 1951). Barton and Cattell (1972) found that couples who used cognition to the exclusion of feelings in problem solving risked having unstable marriages. Marital unhappiness was reported by spouses if they perceived either themselves or their spouses as acting unilaterately (without the aim of influencing spouse's behavior) (Landau, 1976). In another study, maladjusted couples showed a decrease in cooperation, increase in aggression, lack of systematic planning, more anger during decision making (conflict situation) and less communication than did adjusted couples. All these studies contended that the more adjusted/happy couples made decisions jointly. Contrary to this, Cole (1974) discovered that the males in his study valued being able to make decisions independently but at the same time wanted their wives to value taking them into consideration when making decisions. The wives who valued taking the husband into consideration when making decisions tended to have higher marital adjustment scores.

Couples experiencing overall distress in their marriages used a smaller proportion of positive, problem-solving behavior when working with their spouse than they did when working with a stranger of the opposite sex (Vincent, 1973). When dealing with their spouse, they used significantly fewer pleasing and significantly more displeasing behavior than did nondistressed couples. Weiss (1973) concluded from this that problem-solving behavior is determined by situations, not traits. Charny (1969) cautioned against the belief that couples with low scores in expressed conflict, aggression, or anger are happiest. According to him all three are natural consequences of human relations and happy couples do not avoid them but can handle them constructively. This

theory was supported for males in a study by Kawash and Busch (1978). Males with high personal conflict also reported more marital happiness. Further agreement came from a study by Knudson (1977) who found that spouses who engaged rather than avoided a conflict issue had increased access to the other's perceptions by the end of the conflict. Contradictory evidence was found by Jorgenson (1977) as he found those who rated marriage as satisfactory had less intense and frequent conflicts than those who rated their marriage as unsatisfactory.

It may also be that the issue of who has the leadership and power in the marriage, which would most often surface during decision making or conflict resolution, affects marital satisfaction. Fiorito (1978) found husbands with high marital adjustment were less accurate in their perception of the wives' status position than husbands with low marital adjustment. Sprenkle (1975) stated that this was not supported by his results in that wives who assumed relatively powerful roles in their marriages did not report, nor did their husbands, a dissatisfaction with their marriage. Flexibility in assuming power was more related to adjustment in marriage than was relative power according to Sprenkle. If the husband exhibited high power (was able to get people to change behavior according to his directive), he also tended to be high in his rating of marital happiness. There was no significant correlation between power level and marital happiness in wives (Kolb & Straus, 1974). The authors of this study question whether they were measuring power or competence since those spouses with low power also appeared to be incompetent in problem solving ability.

A struggle for dominance was found to be more characteristic of unadjusted than adjusted couples according to a study by Morse (1973). When marriages were classified as husband-dominated, wife-dominated, or egalitarian, the dominant groups were more likely to be associated with negative marital adjustment and egalitarian with positive (Lee, in Morse, 1973). Sprenkle and Olson (1978) found that marriages in which the husband was dominant was acceptable to a large number of couples, but that more adequately family functioning occurred when there was equalitarian leadership accompanied with supportive behavior.

Besides verbal communication systems, couples develop a system of nonverbal communications. Beier (1974) stated that communication patterns over a nine month period for 50 newlywed couples remained constant. Those who reported a happy marriage sat closer, had more frequent eye contact, touched the other more often than themselves and talked more to spouses. Those experiencing more conflict in their marriages tended to sit with crossed arms and legs, had less eye contact, and touched themselves more frequently.

The amount of eye observation (spouse watching mate) used by spouses during conflict interaction tended to distinguish compatible from incompatible couples (Foy, 1977). From responses tabulated from couples' facial expression, Luciani (1978) found there was a significant difference between adjusted and nonadjusted couples, but Bayard (1975) did not find facial expressions related to marital adjustment. Kahn (1970) concluded facial cues did not facilitate marital communication any more than vocal cues. However Kahn (1970) said that couples did develop a unique system of nonverbal communication and Bayard (1975)

contended that general marital communication and the ability to send nonverbal messages did positively correlate with marital adjustment.

An area of married life which involves both verbal and nonverbal communication is sexual interaction. Studies in this area have investigated the relationship between frequencies of intercourse and arguments; the responses to touch; sexual activities before and outside of marriage; and the general relationship of sexual satisfaction to general marital satisfaction. Howard and Dawes (1976) summarized the results of four studies, including their own. They stated that if there was a positive difference between the frequency of sexual intercourse and the number of arguments (defined as at least one party uncooperative--either leaves the situation, verbally attacks, or has an emotional outburst when there is an argument related to any problem, not just a sexual problem), then marital happiness scores were higher than for those who had a negative difference score.

Nguyen, Heslin, and Nguyen (1976) asked males and females how they felt about touches to various areas of their body. Married males attributed less love and pleasantness to sexual touching than did single males or married females. Females perceived touches to the sexual areas as being less friendly and more sexual than did males. They felt touches to nonsexual parts of their bodies were less sexual than did the males. These authors believe that some marital difficulties arise because neither spouse knows what meaning the other is attaching to intimate physical contact.

In investigating the effects of premarital sexual activities on marital happiness, Athanasiou and Sarkin (1974) found that those persons

who engaged in a greater number of premarital sexual activities than others reported themselves to be less happy in marriage only if they did not rate themselves as being glad or very glad about these experiences. The effect of extramarital affairs (EMS) on marital satisfaction appears to be mixed. Through a reanalysis of Athanasiou and Sarkin's data, Walster, Traupmann, and Walster (1978) found that men and women in equitable/underbenefited relationships had more EMS and began these activities earlier than did men and women in equitable or inequitable/overbenefited relationships. For EMS females over the entire course of marriage there tended to be less marital satisfaction than for non-EMS females according to Athanasiou and Shaver (1969). This was true only for the males in their study during the third to eleventh years of marriage. Gurgul (in Glass & Wright, 1977) supported these results for females but reported evidence that EMS for males was likely to be associated with increased marital satisfaction and decreased boredom and tension within the marriage. More studies were summarized in an article by Glass and Wright (1977) who stated that research findings were inconclusive as to whether EMS can and does exist in a marriage which is healthy and happy.

When considering marital satisfaction and sexual attitudes and behavior, Terman (1938) found that only two sexual factors correlated with higher marital happiness; wives' desire for sexual interaction (12 or more per month) and a premarital attitude toward sex which was free from disgust or aversion. According to Johnson (1973), college males who entered marriage with misconceptions about sex tended to regret being married and women who were high in sexual knowledge were more

likely to regret marrying than other women. For women there was a positive correlation between nonsexual marital satisfaction and sexual marital satisfaction, but this did not hold true for males (McRee, 1976). With newlyweds, McRee found that their sexuality was affected by parental ties, discrepancies between husband and wife sexual desires and needs, and work role pressures.

In many studies, some using college students and others using the general population as their sample set, sexual problems were frequently mentioned as one of the major ones that the couple had to deal with (Beck, 1975; Gruver & Labadie, 1975; Horne & Graff, 1973; Kleinke, 1977; Mitchell, Bullard & Mudd, 1962; Oxley, 1973; Raush, Goodrich & Campbell, 1963).

Happily married couples appear to have communication systems both verbal and nonverbal which convey openness and support. They are able to deal with conflict situations by listening and cooperating rather than avoiding or aggressing upon their partners. The frequency of the occurrence of conflict situations seems to affect the relationship, and if they become more frequent than bonding activities such as physical intimacy then the relationship may deteriorate. There is some evidence that the female is expected to be more submissive and less dominating, but other evidence shows that wives can be as dominating as their husbands if there is no struggle for dominance since it is the absence of that struggle which is crucial to marital satisfaction.

Problems in communication as expressed through sexual activities is rated by many spouses as one of the most serious ones they have. Most married people report they receive less physical love than they had

anticipated. The effects of participating in extramarital sex in order to satisfy some of the needs for physical love are inconclusive at this time; in some cases it seems to increase marital satisfaction and in others decrease it.

Special Problems of Married College Couples

Another way to study marital relations is to examine the problems of the spouses' experience in their relationship. Mitchell et al. (1962) did not find any difference in the types of problems mentioned by successfully and unsuccessfully married couples, but did find that the unsuccessfully married have a significantly higher frequency in the number of problems listed. In this study the problems frequently mentioned were inability to handle differences in finances (70 percent), sexual relationship (59 percent) and sharing of tasks (56 percent). Males, only, ranked high dealing with children (55 percent) and recreation (50 percent). To this list other studies have found personal concerns (depression and isolation, mostly expressed by non-working wives); lack of feeling of security in commitment; communications; resentment and not being able to express negative feelings; vacillation between feeling of intimacy and alienation; in-laws; friends; academic or vocational concerns; heavy drinking; religious or philosophical differences; and neurotic or sociopathic traits were considered as problems (Beck, 1975; Horne & Graff, 1973; Kleinke, 1977; Oxley, 1973; Raush et al., 1963; Renne, 1970).

Since a large proportion of the subjects in many of the studies on problems in marriage were college couples, this section will examine

some of the studies which have dealt with special issues of college students.

A question which has been asked is: "Do single or married students have higher grade point average (GPA)?" Two studies (Falk, 1964; Jensen & Clark, 1958) stated that there was no significant difference in GPA between married and single students. However when the question was: "does GPA relate to marital adjustment?" the answer according to Aller (1962) and Hall (1976) was yes with the correlation being positive.

When considering the effect of being a married student, 66 percent of the sample at the University of Arizona said they had a very or generally positive attitude toward college (Christopherson, Vandiver, & Krueger, 1960). Bergen and Bergen (1978) found this to be true only if both spouses were simultaneously in school and were not dependent on loans as a major source of income. At the University of Minnesota, married students were more satisfied with living conditions and had fewer economic concerns than did single students (Falk, 1964). In another study, 67 percent of the married students said they would recommend marriage while still in school as compared to 30 percent who said they would recommend people wait until they were finished (Aller, 1962). Thacker (1978) investigated marital adjustment (using Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale) of graduate students and found that those working on Ph.D.s had lower marital adjustment scores than those working on master's degrees. The lowest mean score was held by those working on Ph.D.s in a professional area.

In the answer to the question of what their marital problems were, college students, like the general population, listed sexual relationship, communications, in-laws, parenting, loneliness, and recreation as some of their major ones. Problems that seemed to have special significance to college students were limited finances, time shortage, limited social life, school pressures, and traits of spouse (stubbornness, selfishness, and nagging/criticism) (Aller, 1962; Clifford, 1977; Gerson, 1960; Gruver & Labadie, 1975; Nelson & Henry, 1978; Perlow & Mullins, 1977).

Two studies found that college and non-college people of similar ages did not differ in types or frequency of problems and marital adjustment (Craven, 1974; Selby, 1973).

Theoretical Background of Jung

As the previous sections of this study have shown, there have been many aspects of mate selection and subsequent relationship satisfaction which one could study. The intent of this study is to consider the selection of mates based on the Jungian personality preferences and the problems and satisfaction that arise from such selections.

Carl Jung, a psychodynamic psychologist, developed a theory of personality. One part of this theory is concerned with psychological types (Jung, 1921/1923). The theory assumes inborn preferences, which are fostered or distorted by societal pressures. In the theory of psychological types, people basically prefer one of two dichotomous ways of relating to the world: extraverted or introverted. The extrovert prefers to relate to the outer world of objects and people while the introvert prefers to center on the inner world of ideas. If a person

has an E (extraverted) preference it means he will prefer that orientation and use it more often. It does not mean he will operate only as an extravert; at times he will function as an introvert (I).

In addition to having an orientation toward the world, each person has preferred ways of functioning. For Jung there are two types of functioning: nonrational and rational. Nonrational functioning refers to the manner in which a person receives information. It is called nonrational functioning because the person simply becomes aware of the information and does not process it. When the processing begins, he is using one of his rational functions. Nonrational functioning can be done either by sensing (S) or intuition (N). If a person prefers to receive information through his five senses, he prefers the sensing function. On the other hand, if a person prefers to receive information more from unconscious material which produces insights, hunches, and intuitions, he is using his intuitive function. Rational functioning refers to the processing of information. The two types of rational functions are thinking (T) and feeling (F). Processing within a logical, objective framework characterizes the thinking function. Using values to process information characterizes the feeling function. According to Jung it is not possible to use S and N or T and F simultaneously. He contended for example that, if a person is consciously and consistently using his S function, then his N function is operating at an unconscious level. Jung further stated that the conscious use of S will result in its being more fully developed and useful than its opposite, N.

Myers and Briggs, when constructing the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) based it on Jung's theory and also created another category.

This categorizing identifies the person's preference for using his non-rational, information gathering functions, or his preference for using his rational, decision making, information sharing function in the extraverted attitude. Choosing the nonrational (S or N) shows a preference for perception (P) while choosing the rational (T or F) shows a preference for judgment (J). This preference is always related to how the person prefers to relate to the outer world.

Besides an orientation preference (E or I), a perception function (S or N), a judgment function preference (T or F), and an attitude preference (J or P), a person has both conscious and unconscious motivations which influence the choice of a mate. Jung believed that within everyone there are certain complexes. He defined a complex as a constellation of feeling-toned, psychic elements around a nucleus. "The nuclear element consists of two components: first, a factor determined by experience and causally related to the second, and second, a factor innate in the individual's character and determined by his disposition" (Jung, 1959,p.96). The second factor is called an archetype. Often this nuclear element is unconscious; partly made of content which was once conscious and part from content "that is not in itself capable of becoming conscious and so cannot be made conscious at all or only with the greatest of difficulty" (Jung, 1959,p.96). The conscious attitude may be hostile or favorably disposed toward the unconscious attitude. When contents from the complexes are made conscious "they lose their automatic character and can be . . . entered into the adaptive process going forward in consciousness, they personalize and rationalize themselves to the point where a dialectical discussion becomes possible" (Jung, 1959,

pp. 96-97). There is a tendency of a complex toward autonomy and it can be recognized by its repetitious nature, feelings of not being in control, and experiencing emotions which do not fit the situation. Complexes which hold feeling-toned material related to the opposite sex play an important part in mate selection and marital happiness. Three complexes, ego, persona, and anima/animus, which contain opposite sex feeling-toned material, will now be discussed.

The ego complex "constitutes the centrum of my field of consciousness and appears to possess a high degree of continuity and identity" (Jung, 1959, pp. 246-247). The attributes we are aware that we wish our mate to have come from the ego complex. Many people believe they choose a mate solely on the basis of these conscious desires. However this is not true according to Jung, as there are many unconscious drives which are also operating. Before discussing the source of many of these (the anima or animus) let us consider another complex which, like the ego, is more readily available for conscious examination. The persona is the front or mask that one puts out to the world. It does not represent the "real" Self but is a compromise between the individual and society regarding how a person will appear. If the persona complex is invested with too much energy, then the ego begins to believe that the real Self and the persona are the same. Since the persona is what is most readily available to the outer world, a mate may be chosen because his/her persona fits the person's image of what is desirable in a mate. However, as aspects of the real Self which may not be incorporated in the persona erupt, the chooser may be baffled as the mate "does not seem like themselves." This may result in disillusioned feelings in the chooser, and

the person may want to abandon the relationship as he/she will feel he is not married to the person he thought he married.

Of the three being discussed, the complex which is most unavailable to consciousness is the anima in a male and the animus in a female. Within the anima complex are contained the male's images of the ideal woman and his images of how to relate to others. All the data accumulated in this anima will influence the choice of a mate. The satisfaction with the mate will depend on the extent to which this mate fits the images in the anima as well as those in the ego consciousness. A male will tend to choose a female who will meet needs that he himself does not at the time fulfill by himself (Jung, 1959). As the male continues on his process of individuation, he will be more consciously aware of the information and drives which come from his anima complex. This can partially be done by looking at what he projects onto his wife. Jung stated that "the anima (or animus; to be discussed later) can only be realized through relations to opposite sex because only in such relations do their projections become operative" (Jung in Read. et al., pt. 2, p. 22). He will be able to see what needs he is expecting his wife to fulfill that thus far have laid dormant in the anima. If he desires to fulfill some of them himself, he will need to incorporate them in his ego complex. In doing this, the relationship will be affected. It may be that he feels much more complete and happy with himself and he will project these feelings to his external world. The spouse may also appreciate his growth and the contentment in the relationship will increase. On the other hand, the wife may feel threatened by this change, especially if she questions her role in the changing relationship. It also

could be that the male will reexamine his relationship with his wife and decide she no longer satisfies the needs he now has. She may no longer fulfill his anima image. In this case, unless the wife is also changing, the relationship is in danger of becoming unsatisfying.

All that has been said above is also true for the woman except that the complex that is active in her is called the animus. The animus complex contains the female's image of men with all the heroic qualities she sees the masculine embodying. It also contains images of how judgment and decisions are made. With the male, the image is of a female while for the female it is an image of maleness in general; her qualities of heroes. This complex deals not with relationships to people as does the anima, but the relationships to the world of activity, creativity and opinions. As a woman's animus changes, the relationship with her spouse will be affected as she may no longer maintain the same image of what men are to be and her decision making style may change. If the husband does not accept this change or does not alter himself in ways to accommodate the changes, the stability of the relationship may be jeopardized. The following diagram shows how the three complexes in each partner tend to relate in a relatively unconscious relationship (Jung, 1959).



Very similar to the ideas expressed in the section of role expectations and enactments, Jung contended that if the two mates meet the expectations projected onto them, the relationship will be satisfying.

If the traditional roles are breached and the husband relates through his anima and the wife through her animus, the relationship will be satisfying only if each can accept on a conscious level the different style. If this happens, both will feel secure enough to pursue their creativity and at the same time be tender. They will know what the other is thinking and be supportive of the striving of their psyches toward wholeness. However if the male can not accept this, his inferior anima will break through and he will begin to use the unpleasant qualities he unconsciously ascribes to women: nagging, stubbornness, moodiness, and pettiness (Jung, 1959). He may begin to use "all women" statements, seeing his wife as just one of these women. The wife will see her husband as incompetent and may become very demanding, a super organized and super controlling individual (Jung, 1959).

Jung (in Read et al., 1971) contends that people tend to marry someone of the opposite type because of an archetypal need. This is "valuable as a psychological symbiosis as long as the partners do not attempt a mutual 'psychological' understanding. However understanding is a normal part of development of an intimate nature and may risk a rapture of marital peace when it is undertaken" (Jung in Read et al., 6, 1971, p. 517). This process may not begin until midlife because until this time the partners are usually dealing with external needs. When these needs no longer occupy so much of their time, they may begin to occupy themselves with one another (Jung in Read et al., 7, 1971). At this time they may discover they never have really understood one another and begin to sense that the valuing of one is the negation of the value of the other.

Midlife possesses another danger to marriage in that it is a transition period at which time many people reexamine their lives. If they experience a disunity with themselves this "begets discontent and since one is not conscious of the real state of things one generally projects the reasons for it upon one's partner" (Jung, 1959, p. 536). It is also likely that the male will discover in this reevaluation period that his life energy is scattered in many directions and he will seek to unite them so as to feel contained. The female, on the other hand, having been primarily focused on the family, will want to expand her interests and assert her independence. Unless there is a strong bond, neither may be able to support the other's growth, and discontent with the relationship will occur. Research on the family life cycle has shown that, even after the children leave, there is not a large increase in marital satisfaction. It may be that some of the dynamics just discussed may keep the marital adjustment level from increasing.

The foregoing section has tried to describe the place of the theory of psychological types and complexes in Jung's comprehensive theory, as it affects marriage. The present research is limited to those differences highlighted in the theory of psychological types.

Jungian Type Preferences and Marital Adjustment Research

This section will discuss the research which has been done investigating the relationship between marital adjustment and Jungian type preferences.

Norton (1971) and Lindner (1973) have studied spouses' ability to predict their spouses' responses on the MBTI and their marital adjustment.

Norton used two scores in his study: an empathy ratio score (ERS) which is the person's correct responses (predicting spouses would answer differently from self), divided by the total number of dissimilar responses of the couple, and an unperceived similarity ratio score (USRS) which is the person's incorrect responses (predicting spouses would answer differently from their own response when in fact the spouse responded similarly) divided by the total number of similar responses. Norton found that the ERS and USRS correlated negatively with marital adjustment (used Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale). Using a multiple regression technique, he found that at $p = .01$, 38 percent of the variation in marital adjustment could be attributed to the ERS and the USRS. Norton concluded that the assumption of dissimilarity, whether supported by spouse's responses or not, related to low marital adjustment.

Lindner (1973) had 21 couples 1) give their own responses to the MBTI, 2) predict their spouse's responses to MBTI, and 3) predict how their spouses would predict their score, e.g., wife predicts how the husband will predict her score. The results showed that introverts were better able to predict their mate's self descriptions while the extraverts were better predictors of the mate's prediction of them. Extraverts showed a higher tendency to assume similarity between themselves and their spouses than did introverts. In relation to marital happiness, those whose personality scores were not extremely similar or dissimilar reported greater marital happiness.

Stuckey (1978) investigated differences in affiliation, arousal, and dominance in nonverbal behavior between couples similar or dissimilar in type as determined by scores on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

There was matching between groups in educational background, age, income, and years married. No significant differences were found between these two groups.

Gray and Wheelwright (1944), using the Gray-Wheelwright Jungian Type Survey which measures preferences between extraversion (E)- introversion (I), sensing (S)- intuiting (N), and thinking (T)- feeling (F), found that 63 percent of the 60 couples they sampled shared only zero (33 percent) or one (30 percent) preference while 27 percent shared two and 10 percent all three preferences. From these results they concluded, as Jung had, that there was a powerful pull toward marrying someone who had opposite preferences. They called this "complementary mating." When the strength of preferences was considered (percentage of choices picked compared to total possible in that dimension), it was found that mates tended to pick someone who balanced them. "In other words, if one partner is extremely marked for feeling valuations, the other partner is not merely on the thinking side, but is near its extreme" (Gray & Wheelwright, 1944, p. 39).

Gray did another study in 1949. The results on data from 271 couples were 47 percent shared zero or one preference and 53 percent shared two or three. Even though the majority of couples now shared all or all but one preference, he continued to state that the complementary theory was supported.

Between 1940 and 1950, Myers (Note 2) used the MBTI to test 375 couples and found 22 percent shared zero or one preference while 69 percent shared two or three, and 9 percent shared all four. The couples were all classified as happily married, between 17 and 85 years old and

from a college-related population. She disagreed with Gray and Wheelwright's theory of complementarity and contended that people tended to marry someone who was similar but not totally similar. The reason for this is "too much oppositeness makes it hard for people to work together even when they fully understand their difference of type. The best teamwork is usually done by people who differ in one or two preferences only" (Myers, Note 2, 10-2). Where were the similarities? The most frequent similarity was on the SN dimension; thus, Myers concluded that there is a need for the mates to see things in the same way. The males who preferred F chose mates with two, three, or four preferences the same while T males tended to marry women with zero or one similar preferences. Fifty three percent of the E males married a wife with at least three preferences the same while only 39 percent of the I males did. The ES males in 65 percent of the cases matched their mate on the JP dimension. If the wife's preference was T then her husband tended to have the same preference on SN.

To support her contention further that successful marriages are usually between people more similar than different, Myers (Note 2) surveyed the similarity of types in couples who sought marital counseling from two psychiatrists and a marriage counselor. These couples were more different than similar in type preferences. Myers hypothesized that, in marriages of opposites, difficulties occurred because of their differences but she added that if the differences were regarded as strengths rather than inferiorities, then the marriage could be successful.

In a study of 38 happily married, church-going couples (Breimeier, Note 1), it was found that introverted men tended to marry

extraverted women more than would be expected by chance; S males were more likely to marry S women; T males were more likely to marry F females; and J males were more likely to marry J females. In summary he stated that four out of the possible eight matches occurred more frequently than could be explained by chance. Two of the pairings favored the complementary theory (I men with E females and T males with F females) and two favored the similarity theory (S men with S females and J men with J females). He also surveyed the types of couples that came to a counseling center for marital counseling but the sample was so small he did not report any quantitative results but rather described the difficulties that three couples had due to their TF, EI, and SN differences.

In the two previous studies, marital happiness was determined by reports of people who knew the couples. Williams (Note 3) did a study involving 200 couples in which she used the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale to measure marital happiness and the MBTI to measure type preferences. There was no significant difference in marital adjustment among the couples when they were categorized by the number of shared preferences, but when those sharing zero preferences were compared to a combined grouping of all others (one, two, or three shared preferences), there was a significant difference with those sharing zero having lower marital adjustment ($p = .05$). The people married only one to two years had a significantly higher marital adjustment score than the other three groups (three-four years, five-nine years, or ten-thirty-two years).

Similar to Myers, Williams (Note 3) found that 63 percent of the couples shared two or three preferences. A very interesting finding was that the couples sharing zero preferences as a group had the largest

mean length of marriage (9.5). She did not find any significant differences (F ratio) in mean marital adjustment scores among the 16 groups but did find INTJs, INTPs, and ESFJs had significantly higher scores than did the ISTJs and ENFJs when using mean square as estimate of variance. It should be noted that two limitations of these studies were that the couples were ones who volunteered for a marital enrichment program and consisted of 33 percent INFPs or ENFPs which is a much higher frequency than occurs in the general population.

Summary

The study of marital adjustment is very difficult in that there are so many factors which may influence it. This chapter has discussed areas in which there is basic agreement among researchers as to the effect of certain factors on marital adjustment and other areas in which there is not agreement. Also there are some social factors which affect marital adjustment which were not discussed in this chapter. The following is a summary of these different factors.

Results of many studies have shown that spouses who have homogeneity of race, religious preference, ethnic and class background, and educational level tend to have more adjusted marriages than do those who are not homogamous in these areas. Sharing values, which are supported by the groups of which the spouses are members, has been shown to increase the chances of marital adjustment. Those people who had close relationships to both of their parents and had little conflict with them reported being more adjusted in their marriages than did those who were not close to both parents or were frequently in conflict with them.

People enter marriage with expectations of traits they believe are important for their spouses to possess and of roles they believe should be performed by themselves and their spouses. More adjusted marriages result if spouses perceive their mates as possessing these traits. Higher marital adjustment tends to occur when individuals possess these traits and perceive their mates as being similar to them in personality characteristics. If the spouses do not perceive their mates as being similar to them, there was high marital adjustment only when they perceived the differences as being positive. If there is very little discrepancy between one's role expectations and spouse's role enactment, there is a greater chance of satisfactory marital adjustment. One area in which there often is a large discrepancy is sexual relations. If spouses have similar sexual beliefs and desires, there is a greater chance of high marital adjustment than if they are not similar. Also the frequency of physical intimacy needs to be greater than the frequency of arguments if high marital adjustment is to be maintained.

Some areas related to marital adjustment in which research does not present consistent findings are:

1. the wife working away from home
2. similarity or difference in needs
3. the type and amount of self-disclosure of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors
4. the type and amount of conflict and disagreements
5. extramarital affairs
6. unconscious motivations.

Research investigating the relationship between Jungian psychological type preferences and marriage has found that people similar, but not totally similar, tended to marry. There was some evidence that those similar in one, two, three, or four preferences tended to report higher marital adjustment than those similar in zero functions.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study examined the relationship between self-reported marital adjustment of college students and the similarity of the couples in Jungian psychological type preferences, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, a self-report questionnaire. A person's responses to the MBTI indicate which pole on each of four dimensions the person prefers: extraversion or introversion (E or I); sensing or intuiting (S or N); thinking or feeling (T or F); and judging or perceiving (J or P). A person is classified according to his four preferences, one taken from each dimension, e.g., an ENTP is a person who prefers extraversion, intuiting, thinking and perception; while an ISFJ prefers introversion, sensing, feeling and judgment. Mates can be similar or different on each of the four dimensions. For instance, if one mate is an ENTP and the other an ISTJ, then the spouses are similar on one dimension (T) and different on the other three. It is possible for mates to be similar on zero, one, two, three, or four preferences.

The marital adjustment of each spouse was obtained from a second questionnaire, comprised of two scales: Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (Locke & Wallace, 1959, LWMAS) and Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1972, DAS). The items in the LWMAS and DAS measure the amount of agreement in crucial value areas the amount of satisfaction with other aspects of the relationship. In addition, an attitude response was obtained for each question on these two marital adjustment scales.

It measured the spouse's perception of the effect each of the areas questioned had on their marital relationship.

This chapter includes a statement of the hypotheses and discussions of the subjects, demographic and personal data, instruments, scoring, procedures, data analyses, and limitations.

Hypotheses

1. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar in zero, one, two, three, or four preferences based on the dichotomous scores of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) as measured by the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (LWMAS) or the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS).

2. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar in zero, one, two, three, or four preferences based on the continuous scores of the MBTI as measured by the LWMAS or the DAS.

3. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are grouped according to similarity or difference on a preference based on dichotomous scores of the MBTI as measured by LWMAS and DAS.

4. There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are grouped according to similarity or difference on a preference based on continuous scores of the MBTI as measured by the LWMAS or the DAS.

5. There are no significant differences in attitude scores on any of the items of the LWMAS and DAS when the couples are divided

according to similarity or difference on each preference using dichotomous MBTI scores, e.g., the groups on the EI dimension are 1) both Es, 2) wife E and husband I, 3) wife I and husband E, and 4) both Is.

Subjects

The couples who participated in this study were married with at least one spouse enrolled at the University of Florida during the winter quarter of 1980. The University furnished the investigator with a list of all the students who were registered for this quarter and were married. A letter was sent introducing the study and inviting all couples who lived in University family housing to attend workshops to be conducted in each of the University family housing areas (see Appendix A). A similar letter was sent to 100 randomly selected couples who lived off-campus.

Many of those who did not attend the workshops were contacted personally by the researcher and encouraged to participate. Two follow-up letters were mailed and another personal contact was made with all the couples who agreed to participate but had not returned the questionnaires. Of the approximately 160 couples who agreed to complete the questionnaires, 89 actually completed the battery of information. Of these 89 couples, 70 lived in University housing and 19 lived in off-campus housing.

Each person who participated in this study was requested to answer some demographic and personal questions. These questions asked for information about their present marriage: age entered, number of years

married and number of children living in the home. Background information about parents' marriage included questions on whether or not the parent had divorced while the subject lived with them and the occupation of the major breadwinner. Personal questions asked the person to decide how close the person felt towards his/her parents, how happy the person perceived his/her childhood to have been, and how happy the person perceived his/her parents' marriage to be.

As the review of the literature indicated, there are many factors which may affect marital adjustment. These demographic and personal data items were included in the study as they survey certain areas which past research has indicated do affect marital adjustment.

Instruments

There were three instruments used in this study: the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. In addition, an attitude response was obtained for each item in the two marital adjustment scales.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The purpose of the MBTI was to "implement Jung's theory of type" (Myers, 1962). The instrument was designed to identify the eight types described in detail by Jung, amplified to 16 types described by Myers and Briggs as they would function at their best. The 16 types make explicit the effects of development of the auxiliary function which is described but not developed in Jung's work. To identify types, the MBTI uses forced-choice questions to identify four bipolar preferences, extraversion-introversion (EI), sensing-intuiting (SN), thinking-feeling

(TF) and judgment-perception (JP). The scoring generates point totals for E, I, S, N, T, F, J, and P, and preference scores, made up of a letter to indicate the direction of preference, and a number indicating the strength of preference after a tie-breaking formula has been applied. Thus two persons identified as ESFP might have preference scores of E15, S39, F19, P43 or E03, S07, F23, P19. Myers and Briggs designed the instrument to indicate the four letters of the preference, ESFP, and considered the data on the strength of preference an incidental by-product. Many, if not most investigators see a loss of data in ignoring strength of preference--some even use the data on strength of preference and ignore the data on type for which the instrument was created. Following the theory, and the construction of the Indicator, each of the scales, EI, SN, TF and JP is considered to reflect an underlying dichotomy. Myers expects bi-modal curves only with populations who have achieved good type development and are clear in their preferences. Siegel (1963) and Stricker, Schiffman and Ross (1965) question whether the assumption of dichotomous scales is supported by the data, and recommend treating the scales as continua. Myers herself created a convention for reporting the scales as if they were continuous. Putting the midpoint at 100, the preference score value is subtracted from 100 if the score is E, S, T, or J, and added to the value if the score is I, N, F, and P. (The continuous scores for the two ESFPs mentioned above would be 85, 61, 119, 143 and 97, 93, 123, 119 respectively.) There is no agreement at present as to the most appropriate scores to use for specific questions asked of MBTI data. Stricker et al. (1965) used the contingency table procedure to assess the MBTI ability to

predict freshman grade point average and dropout rate; they concluded that the interdependent, dichotomous type categories (16 types) generally had greater predictive ability than did continuous scores. (It should be noted that specific relationships are assumed to exist between the preferences for each type.) For example, ESFP is assumed to denote a person who prefers the extraverted attitude, and dealing with the world mainly through sensing perception, observation of the immediately present experience; when introverting, the person will use mainly feeling to establish priorities in light of personal values; least available will be imagination and interest in abstraction or theory, since these are provided by intuition, the opposite of the dominant sensing, and thus a shadow or inferior function. For the purposes of the present research, couple data will be analyzed by comparison of the 16 types (dichotomous scores), and also by their differences on continuous scores.

Myers (1962) and others (Stricker and Ross, 1963; Carlyn, 1977; McCaulley, Note 4) have reported internal consistency reliabilities for college student samples. Split-half reliabilities range from .71 to .88 for EI, .80 to .90 for SN, .68 to .86 for TF and .80 to .87 for JP. Myers noted lower reliabilities for under-achieving junior high school students (.60-.80 for EI, .59-.75 for SN, .19-.57 for TF and .62-.81 for JP). She noted that reliability scores are a function of the clarity of preference of the person taking the MBTI, and that clarity in decision-making, i.e., between T and F, can be the latest to develop, and is more likely to be confused in persons operating below their potential. Stricker and Ross (1963) reported Alpha reliabilities of high school and college students

ranging from .76-.83 for EI, .74-.80 for SN, .64-.74 for TF and .78-.84 for JP. They commented that these reliabilities were comparable to those of better known instruments with longer scales.

Test-retest reliabilities summarized by McCaulley (Note 4) for four college samples and two samples reported by Carskadon (1977) ranged from .75-.83 for EI, .69-.83 for SN, .56-.78 for TF and .64-.87 for JP, with intervals ranging from eight weeks to 21 months. The percent reporting the same letter preferences in the four samples ranged from 74 to 84 percent for EI, 70 to 88 percent for SN, 73 to 90 percent for TF, and 66 to 76 percent for JP. The range of persons reporting all four letters the same was 31 percent to 47 percent; three or all four the same accounted for from 60 percent to 88 percent. Howes and Carskadon (1979) found that when changes in type changed it was usually only in one preference, and that almost all changes were in indeterminate preference, i.e., the subject's original choices were almost equally divided between the two poles.

Three types of validity have been considered in relation to the MBTI: content, predictive and construct. Stricker and Ross (1964) contend that the content of items used for SN and TF scales seem to be consistent with Jung's conceptual definitions, but that EI and JP may measure something other than the definitions formulated by Myers (1962) in the MBTI Manual. Others (Ross, Mendelsohn, & Gerard in Sundberg, 1965; Ross, Note 5) have also questioned whether item content is tapping the essence of Jung's constructs or merely surface characteristics. Myers and Briggs did not claim that item content reflects the constructs themselves. Their aim was to tap the readily-reported behaviors assumed

to stem from Jungian preferences, and so to infer the preferences themselves; that is, the questions were designed to be the straws that test the wind, not a measure of the wind itself.

According to Carylyn (1977), four studies gave evidence of the ability of the MBTI to predict choice of major and success in college. According to the data from these studies, the MBTI had some predictive ability to forecast majors, reception of good grades, specific curriculum choices, GPA, and dropout potential.

Bradway (1964) asked 28 Jungian analysts to classify themselves on EI, SN, and TF; there was 100 percent agreement on EI, 68 percent on SN, and 61 percent on TF of self-classification and MBTI classification. Myers (1962) reports correlations between MBTI and Jungian Type Survey preferences for 47 male college students of EI .79, SN .58 and TF .60; correlations which were high in light of the correlations expected, taking into account the reliabilities of both instruments. Myers (Note 6) studied 5355 medical students and followed them up 12 years later to determine their choice of specialty. She found a significant tendency to choose specialties consistent with expectations from type theory.

There has been extensive research in the area of construct validity. In the Manual (Myers, 1962), the results of many studies are cited which reported correlations of MBTI scales with other tests. They support the constructs of the orientations and functions of Jung's theory (Myers, 1962, pp. 16-40). These correlation studies involve such instruments as Allport-Vernon-Lindsay's Study of Values, Edward's Personal Preference Schedule, Strong's Vocational Interest Blank and

Terman's Concept Test. Other studies correlated students' and employees' dropout rates.

Supporting these results, Grant (Note 7) found in a study involving 1413 freshman students at Auburn University in Alabama that summary descriptions, compiled from an 85 item questionnaire concerning the students' behaviors and attitudes, were similar to the descriptions of types presented in the MBTI Manual. Carlyn (1977) described many studies which support the validity of each preference when it was considered separately. In summary, Mendelsohn supported the validity of the MBTI in being able to relate "meaningfully to a large number of variables including personality, ability, interest, values, aptitude, and performance measures, academic choices, and behavior ratings" (1965, p. 322).

Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

The LWMAS consists of 15 items (Appendix D). The items were chosen from the most basic and discriminating items of other marital adjustment questionnaires (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939; Burgess & Wallin, 1953; Locke, 1951; Terman, 1938). It purports to measure "spouses intended and actual values, goals and agreements" (Hunt, 1978, p. 249). The norming was done with a sample of 118 males and 118 nonrelated females. This sample was heterogeneous but biased toward native American, white, Protestant, college-trained people (Locke & Wallace, 1959).

The split-half technique with a correction by the Spearman-Brown formula produced a reliability coefficient of .90 (Locke & Wallace, 1959). Using the average inter-item formula derived from the Spearman-Brown formula, Spanier in a different

sample (1972) found the reliability coefficient to be .77. When he used the Cronbach-Alpha estimate, the coefficient was .73.

To establish the validity of the scale, Locke and Wallace gave the scale to 48 maladjusted couples of which 11 were recently divorced and six separated. These couples were matched in age and sex to 48 couples who were rated by friends as being exceptionally well adjusted in their marriages. In the well adjusted group the average marital adjustment score was 135.9 with 96 percent having scores of 100 or higher. In the maladjusted group the average score was 71.7 with only 17 percent scoring 100 or higher (Locke & Wallace, 1959). Fiorito (1978), on a sample of college students, obtained similar results: 138.5 for those with high marital adjustment and 84.9 for those with low marital adjustment.

Spanier (1976) took 300 questions from the various marital inventories that were in existence at that time and tested the discriminanting power of these questions. All the LWMAS items were included in his questionnaire. After eliminating items which duplicated each other or were not able to distinguish between happily married and divorced couples, he did a factor analysis on the remaining 40 items. Eight items were eliminated due to low factor loadings and the remaining 32 items comprise the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). Eleven of the 15 LWMAS items appear in the DAS which adds support to the validity of the LWMAS. Spanier (1972) eliminated the four items on the grounds that they did not have a high enough correlation with the total test score and they therefore jeopardized the validity of the scale.

Spanier (1972) says this instrument (LWMAS) is supposed to measure successful-nonsuccessful group functioning of a couple unit. If this is true, then there should be a high correlation between the husband's and wife's scores. Such correlations were found by Spanier (1972, $\bar{x} = .59$) and Hurvitz (1965, $\bar{x} = .62$).

There are two major problems related to the LWMAS. One unique to the instrument is its weighted scoring and the second, which is common to all marital adjustment scales, is the effect of social desirability on the choice of responses. Locke and Wallace used a weighted scale (Appendix D) so that some items add many more points to one's total score than do others. The rationale for this was that some items accounted for a greater amount of difference between adjusted and mal-adjusted groups. These weights have been maintained even though Locke and Williamson (1958) did a factor analysis of the items and did not find using the weights had much influence on the marital adjustment scores. Spanier (1976) did an extensive study of LWMAS using the weighted and continuous unit scoring and concluded "weighting does not appear to enhance our ability to assess adjustment to a degree which would indicate that weighting items according to importance is worth the additional effort" (p. 24). He found $\bar{x} = .94$ for the husbands and $\bar{x} = .92$ for the wives when he correlated the weighted and continuous unit scores. With continuous scores the correlation between husbands and wives was maintained at approximately the same level as with the weighted scores ($\bar{x} = .57$). The problem of scoring will be dealt with in this study by using the weighted scoring as has been maintained by

the users of the LWMAS and by using continuous scoring with the DAS (to be described later).

In considering the reliability and validity of people's rating of marital adjustment, Edmonds (1967) contended you must take into account social desirability. In populations not chosen because the couples were receiving counseling, marital adjustment/happiness ratings were skewed to the high side (e.g. in Gruver & Labadie, 1975, 70 percent reported relatively happy marriages and only 16 percent unhappy or considering a divorce; Johannes, 1956, 85 percent of the college population sampled reported happy or very happy marriages; and Renne, 1970, 84 percent of the males and 79 percent of the females reported happy or very happy marriages). Edmonds (1967) found a .63 correlation between the LWMAS and the Edmonds Marital Conventionalization Test scores which he developed to test the amount of socially desirable answering a couple was doing. From this he concluded that the LWMAS was heavily contaminated by conventionalism (socially desirable answering). Both Cone (1971) and Rolfe (1975) found evidence to support Edmonds' contention that marital adjustment scores are contaminated by socially desirable answering. This means that much self rating of marital satisfaction may not be accurate indicators of the state of the relationship, but rather a response that is the socially desired one. Jamail (1977) attempted to devise a short LWMAS which would remove socially desirable answering, but failed. Renee (1970) counters Edmonds with this statement: "Conventionalism is more than simply not telling the truth--it is a form of the truth. . . . But our personal and collective myths, fables, and fictions are part of our design for living. They are not fraudulent;

they are part of our reality" (p. 280). Also Hunt (1978) does not support Edmonds as in his study of the LWMAS, he rejected conventionalism as an explanation of LWMAS scores. There will be no direct attempt in this study to control for socially desirable answering and it will be assumed that socially desirable answering will operate equally with all groups which are being considered. Social desirability will be addressed in the introduction of this study which will be given to all participants. The participants will be asked to answer each item as honestly as they can. Edmonds' Conventionality Scale is not being included in this study because the author believes that it would add too many questions to an already lengthy questionnaire.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

The LWMAS is being used in this study because it is the most widely used and validated marital adjustment scale (Edmonds et al., 1972). However this investigator did not believe it covers sufficiently certain areas of marital relationships (sexual behavior, affectionate behavior, sharing of activities, and behavior when dealing with conflicts). Therefore, the questions of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) which covers these areas were administered in addition to the LWMAS questions.

The DAS contains 32 items, 11 of which are also in the LWMAS (Appendix E for DAS items). The norm for the DAS are based on two samples: one married (218 individuals) and another divorced (96 individuals. Both samples were white, predominantly Protestant and lived in Centre County, Pennsylvania. The married sample was recruited from

four corporations based in this county and the divorce sample from the county records. All the divorced couples had divorced within 12 months (1972) of the time when they were contacted and were asked to respond to each item in the context of the last month they spent with their former spouse (Spanier, 1976).

Using Chronbach's Coefficient Alpha, Spanier (1976) obtained a .96 reliability measure of internal consistency.

According to Spanier (1976) the DAS had content, criterion-related and construct validity. The three criteria used to establish whether or not it had content validity were

1. relevant measures of dyadic adjustment for contemporary relationship;
2. consistent with the nominal definitions suggested by Spanier and Cole (Note 8) for adjustment and its components (satisfaction, cohesion, and consensus and affectional expression);
3. carefully worded with appropriate fixed choice responses.
(pp. 22-23)

To establish criterion-related reliability the DAS was administered to 218 married and 94 divorced persons. For each item the divorced sample differed significantly from the married sample (t -test, $p < .001$). The mean score for married and divorced persons was significantly different ($p = .001$, 114.8 for married and 70.7 for divorced) (p. 24).

To establish construct validity, Spanier (1976) correlated results of the DAS with the LWMAS to see whether it measured the same general construct as the frequently used LWMAS measures. He found a .86 correlation for married and .88 for divorced respondents ($p < .001$). Also Spanier considered that the factor analysis he did which showed that three of the four interrelated components (dyadic satisfaction, dyadic

cohesion, and dyadic consensus and affectual expression) did exist, was further support of the construct validity of the DAS.

Attitude Response Inventory

An additional body of information was gathered from participants by asking them to indicate the degree of influence they believed each activity described on the LWMAS and DAS had on their present relationship. The possible responses were "frequently positive effect," "sometimes a positive effect," "no effect," "sometimes a negative effect," and "frequently a negative effect." The scoring of the LWMAS and DAS assumes that certain amounts of agreement on issues of frequencies of behaviors indicate more marital adjustment than do others, e.g., always agreeing on recreation is scored higher than occasionally disagreeing on recreation, and having a stimulating exchange of ideas once a day is scored higher than having one once or twice a month. This may or may not be true from the respondent's frame of reference. The attitude response allowed the spouses to indicate how positively or negatively each activity affected their relationship. The attitude score was used to assess, on each item of the LWMAS and DAS, the amount of marital adjustment being experienced by the person.

The optional section contains descriptions to which the respondent must decide how often he/she fits the description, how often the spouse fits the description; and how the person feels

the similarity or difference between the mates affects the relationship. The descriptions were formulated by the author and other people familiar with descriptions of types. They attempt to describe characteristics which all seem desirable in and of themselves but when viewed in relation to the spouse's needs could be perceived as being helpful or detrimental to the relationship.

This author found in a study of roommates (Wentworth, Note 9) that the perceived difference between self and roommate accounted for more of the difficulties in the relationship than did the differences as measured by the MBTI. As the review of the literature in the previous section showed, the most happily married couples perceived themselves as being similar to each other but that this similarity was not essential for happiness. The data from the optional questionnaire may be helpful in isolating specific type-related problems couples experience. The data will be used as part of a pilot study and will not be analyzed in this study.

Scoring

Dichotomous and continuous scores on the MBTI were determined by scoring procedures described in the MBTI Manual (Myers, 1962). A difference in preference on a dimension when the dichotomous scores are used was defined as one mate having a score below 100 and one having a score above 100. Scores close to 100 indicate a low preference and scores diverge from 100 as the strength of the preference increases. A difference in preference on each dimension when the continuous scores are used was defined as the spouses being more than two

standard errors of measure apart on their scores. By defining the difference in preference in this way it will be possible, for example, that a couple in which one spouse's score is very high on the I scale and the other spouse's score is very low on the I scale to be classified as different if their scores are more than two standard errors of measure apart. On the other hand, a person who has a low E preference and her mate a low I preference will be classified as being similar if their scores are not two standard errors of measure apart. The standard error of measure was determined using the scores of the subjects in this study.

Locke and Wallace's (1959) weighted scoring procedure was used on the LWMAS (Appendix D shows number of points given for each response). A total score was derived by adding all the scores of the individual items included in this scale. The range is from 2 to 158, with a low score (more than one standard deviation below the mean of this population) being interpreted as low adjustment and a high one as high adjustment (more than one standard deviation above the mean of this population).

The DAS uses a continuous unit scoring procedure with the range of points of any particular item depending on the number of responses possible. Items have 2, 5, 6, or 7 responses (Appendix E). The lowest response choice is given 0 points and one point is added for each additional response choice. The range for the 32 items is 0 to 151. Spanier (1976) justified the use of nonweighted scoring in these words:

Our data demonstrate quite clearly that individuals are able to answer two-part questions of this nature without difficulty, and they are able to make a clear judgment about the importance of the item. However, we found that

on the areas surveyed by the 32 items on the scale, the importance variable is skewed in the direction of "very important." The only items on which a nontrivial proportion of the respondents indicated that the item was not at all important were religious matters (28.7%) and ways of dealing with in-laws and parents (20.6%). . . However, primarily because of skewness toward "very important" in ratings of areas of dyadic adjustment and moderately high correlations between weighted and unweighted scores in the present sample ($\bar{x} = .63$ for total sample), a decision was made not to use weighted scale. (pp. 24-25)

The attitude score was derived by adding up all the individual attitude scores. A continuous unit scoring procedure was used with the responses receiving these values: ++ = 5, + = 4, = = 3, and - = 2, and -- = 1. The possible range of scores was from 0 to 185. A low score indicated the person was experiencing many items as negatively affecting the relationship.

Procedures

Each spouse was asked to take the MBTI and to complete the Demographic and Personal Data page and marital adjustment questionnaire. The Demographic and Personal Data as well as the two marital adjustment scales were contained in what was labelled the Marital Questionnaire (Appendix C). The person was asked to follow the directions written on the instruments. Instructions, which appeared on a cover letter (Appendix A), requested that the spouses not discuss their responses until after they had both completed answering all the questions. All couples were offered feedback on their MBTI results either in group or individual sessions. If any couple wished to explore further their marital relationship, counseling was made available.

A numbering system was used to identify couples so that only this investigator knew who the respondents were on the marital adjustment

scales. All participants signed a consent form (Appendix B) which explained to them that confidentiality was to be maintained.

Data Analyses

To determine whether there was any significant differences in marital adjustment between couples based on demographic factors, tests of differences of the means were performed. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were used to determine whether there were any significant relationship between

1. how close they were to each parent as they grew up
2. how happy they believed their childhood was
3. how close they are to each parent now
4. how happy they are now

Correlation among the two marital adjustment scales (LWMAS and DAS) and the attitude inventory were calculated to assess the extent to which these scales agreed on the degree of marital adjustment being reported. A 1×16 Anova was done to determine if certain types tended to rate themselves as being more adjusted. Rankings were done to see if, when considering total type, certain pairings tended to result in more adjusted marriage. Rankings were done according to:

1. husband's LWMAS score
2. husband's DAS score
3. wife's LWMAS scores
4. wife's DAS scores.

The Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance test was used to determine if there are any statistically significant differences between the means of the groups used in the first two hypotheses. The analysis was done on marital adjustment scales:

Hypothesis

1.	LWMAS	0	1	2	3	4	Number of shared dichotomous preferences
	DAS	0	1	2	3	4	Number of shared dichotomous preferences
2.	LWMAS	0	1	2	3	4	Number of shared preferences using continuous scoring
	DAS	0	1	2	3	4	Number of shared preferences using continuous scoring

For hypotheses three and four, the Mann Whitney test was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the means on the marital adjustment scores for the following groups:

3.	LWMAS	0	1	different (0) or same (1) on one dimension (dichotomous scores)
	DAS	0	1	Different (0) or same (1) on one dimension (dichotomous scores)
4.	LWMAS	0	1	Different (0) and same (1) on one dimension (continuous scores)
	DAS	0	1	Different (0) and same (1) on one dimension (continuous scores)

This test was done for each of the four preferences (EI, SN, TF and JP). For hypothesis five the attitude score was obtained by adding husband's attitude to wife's attitude score. One x 4 Anovas were done to see if there was a significant difference in the means of the attitude score for the following groups (similar formation of groups was done for the four preferences):

	Both Es	Wife-E Husband-I	Wife-I Husband-E	Both Is
5. Attitude score				

This test was run on each item in the LWMAS and DAS.

The level of significance used throughout this study was $p = .05$.

Limitations

The population of this study was students who were homogeneous in age, placement in an academic environment, and willingness to cooperate in this research. The results of this study are only generalizable to similar populations. Both the independent and dependent variables were paper and pencil tests. The difficulty in this for the independent variable (MBTI) which measures Jungian personality type is that it measures more the conscious than unconscious aspects of a person's personality. Jung (1959) and Winch (1955) believed that a person chose a mate both on the basis of conscious and unconscious needs. Lewis (1976) obtained different answers to the question of whether one marries someone with similar or different needs depending on whether he used a projective (measures more unconscious needs) or paper and pencil technique (measures more conscious needs). The difficulty of measuring marital adjustment through a self-report instrument is that the individuals' responses may have been those they considered socially desirable rather than those which reflected their personal satisfaction with the relationship. No controls or checks for socially desirable answering were made and it was assumed that socially desirable answering operated equally within all groups. However, this may not be true as certain types may have been more inclined to give socially desirable (conventional) responses than were other types.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of this study will be stated in the following sections: demographic and personal data, instruments, type distribution, and hypotheses. Unless otherwise stated, the results are based on scores of 178 people (89 couples). The significance level is $p = .05$ for all tests for which it is applicable.

Demographic and Personal Data

For 90 percent of the college students and their spouses in the population, this is their first marriage. While the majority (57 percent) entered the marriage between the ages of 21-25, 29 percent married when under 21 years old. The following is a breakdown of these people according to the number of years they have been married:

less than one year	19 percent
1-5 years	60 percent
6-10 years	15 percent
11-20 years	6 percent

Sixty-two percent of them have never had children living with them during this marriage and 65 percent have none living with them now. Of those 31 couples having children, 17 have one child, 13 have two children, and one has three children.

Analyses of variance yield no significant differences in mean scores for marital adjustment between couples in the first or more than first marriages or in couples grouped by age at time of marriage. There

are, however, significant differences in mean marital adjustment when spouses are grouped according to the number of years they have been in this marriage and according to the number of children. According to results from LWMAS, those who have been married less than one year report significantly more adjustment than do all the other groups and according to both the DAS and LWMAS, those married less than one year or from one to five years report more adjustment than do those married 11-20 years (see Tables 9 and 10, Appendix F). Although there is a significant difference in marital adjustment among those who have zero to two children and those who have three children, this result is not very meaningful as there is only one couple with four children (see Table 11, Appendix F).

The following background factors show no evidence of significantly influencing marital adjustment of this population: occupation of breadwinner in childhood family, similarity of occupations of breadwinner in spouses' childhood families and the status of parents' marriage (divorced or not).

In the following discussions a person (or a relationship) is defined as happy (or close) if the two responses of "extremely" or "somewhat" happy (or close) were chosen. There are five other possible choices ranging from slightly happy (or close) to extremely unhappy (or distant). Jung (1959) hypothesized that people who experience a happy childhood would have a better chance of establishing a satisfying (adjusted) marriage. A total of 146 people report themselves as having had a happy childhood. The correlations between childhood happiness and marital adjustment are $\bar{r} = .15$, $p = .022$ (LWMAS) and $\bar{r} = .18$, $p = .006$ (DAS).

Jung (1959) also believed that a quality relationship of a child with each of his parents would increase the probability of a person's establishing an adjusted marital relationship. A total of 145 of the people describe themselves as having been close to their mother while growing up, while 92 reported being close to their father. Only when using DAS as measure of marital adjustment is there a significant correlation between marital adjustment and closeness to mother when growing up ($r = .17$, $p = .013$). Correlations between marital adjustment and closeness to father while growing up are $r = .13$, $p = .04$ (LWMAS) and $r = .17$, $p = .013$ (DAS).

Besides demographic and background questions, the participants were asked to answer some personal questions about their present feelings of closeness to parents and overall happiness. One hundred thirty-four out of 173 people report themselves as having a close relationship with their mother. One hundred four report themselves as having a close relationship with their father. There are no significant correlations between marital adjustment and the amount of present closeness of either mother or father.

One hundred sixty-six out of 178 people rate themselves as being happy now. The correlations between marital adjustment and present happiness are $r = .67$, $p < .001$ (LWMAS) and $r = .64$, $p < .001$ (DAS).

Instruments

The results of Pearson Product-Moment Correlations show that the split-half reliability on the MBTI scores for this population are similar

to those found in other college populations (Myers, 1962; McCaulley, Note 4). The results are:

EI $\bar{x} = .80$

TF $\bar{x} = .83$

SN $\bar{x} = .79$

JP $\bar{x} = .83$

Pearson Product-Moment correlations among the LWMAS, DAS, and Attitude Response Inventory are:

LWMAS and DAS $\bar{x} = .84$

LWMAS and Attitude Inventory $\bar{x} = .81$

DAS and Attitude Inventory $\bar{x} = .83$

These high correlations give evidence that these three scales are measuring the same construct which is being called marital adjustment.

The Pearson Product-Moment correlations between husband's and wife's LWMAS scores for the population is $\bar{x} = .82$ and for the DAS scores is $\bar{x} = .80$. This is considerably higher than other studies have reported (Hurvitz, 1965, $\bar{x} = .62$; Spanier, 1972, $\bar{x} = .59$). Spanier (1972) considers a high correlation between husband's and wife's scores to be a necessary condition for an instrument to be considered a valid measure of marital adjustment.

For the LWMAS the mean marital adjustment score for the total sample is 121.84 and $SD = 13.63$ (for wives, $M = 123.65$ and $SD = 20.7$ and for husbands, $M = 110.22$ and $SD = 13.67$). The range of scores is 65 to 138, out of a possible range of zero to 151. The MA level of this population is very similar to Spanier's (1976) married population who had a mean marital adjustment score of 114.8 and $SD = 17.8$.

Type Distribution

The population is fairly balanced between Es (44 percent) and Is (56 percent), Ss (47 percent) and Ns (53 percent), and Ts (58 percent) and Fs (42 percent) but is skewed towards Js (71 percent) (Ps only 29 percent). When these groups are divided according to sex, there are nearly equal numbers of males and females in every category except on the TF preference. As is common in most populations, more males are Ts and more females are Fs (see Tables 12-14, Appendix F, for distribution of types).

The distributions of couples according to the number of shared preferences when dichotomous or continuous scores are used are:

	Dichotomous Scores					Continuous Scores				
Number of shared preferences	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
Number of couples	0	13	37	33	6	6	25	36	21	1

The distributions of couples according to their difference (0) or similarity (1) on a preference using dichotomous or continuous scores are:

	Dichotomous Scores		Continuous Scores	
EI	0	1	0	1
	41	48	51	38
SN	29	60	39	50
TF	44	45	57	32
JP	32	57	45	44

Marital adjustment of the 16 types is considered in two ways: the ranking of types by mean marital adjustment and by an analysis of variance. Table 15 (see Appendix F) shows the ranking of the mean marital adjustment scores of each of the 16 personality types. (See Table 16, Appendix F for the mean marital scores of each type.) In examining this table, one can see that in the lower adjusted groups are all the NFs and

three of the four NPs. In the higher adjusted groups occur all the ES and three of four SJs and TJs. Results of 1X16 Anovas, using total type as the independent variable and marital adjustment as the dependent variable, show that there are no significant differences in marital adjustment among the 16 types.

If high-adjusted marriages are defined as ones in which both partners' marital adjustment scores are one standard deviation above the mean (scores above 144 on the LWMAS and above 124 on the DAS), there are some trends which are observable (see Table 17, Appendix F). (Ranking according to marital adjustment of all the couples occurs in Tables 18-21, Appendix F). There is a greater percent of Fs (67 percent) and Es (67 percent) in high-adjusted population than there is in the total population (42 percent and 44 percent respectively). There are no couples in this group in which both spouses are Is.

If low-adjusted marriages are defined as ones in which both partners' marital adjustment scores are one standard deviation below the mean (below 100 on the LWMAS and 96 on the DAS), some patterns occur. In all but two cases the spouses differ on the TF preference. According to the results of the LWMAS, there is a greater percent of Ps (57 percent) who report being in low-adjusted marriages than occurs in the population (29 percent).

It is interesting to note that the couples who share all four preferences are not part of either the high-adjusted or low-adjusted groups.

Hypotheses

Each hypothesis will be present separately. For each of the hypotheses, the independent variables are obtained from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator scores (MBTI). For the first four hypotheses, the dependent variables are marital adjustment scores obtained from the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (LWMAS) and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). For hypothesis five, the attitude score is used as the dependent variable. It measures the attitude of the spouses as to how much effect certain activities have on marital adjustment. For all hypotheses, the significance level is set at $p = .05$.

Hypothesis One

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar in zero, one, two, three, or four preferences based on the dichotomous scores of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) as measured by the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (LWMAS) or the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS).

In testing the hypothesis, the amount of similarity of the couple is determined by the total number of shared preferences when the dichotomous scores of the MBTI are used. Tables 1 and 2 give the results of the Kruskal-Wallis One Way analysis of the variance using the total number of shared preferences and the two marital adjustment scores. The numbers given for chi-squares and significance levels are corrected for ties.

Table 1

Kruskal-Wallis One Way Anova Using Number of Shared Preferences
(Dichotomous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured
by Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Source	0	1	2	3	4
Number of shared preferences	0	1	2	3	4
Number of cases	0	13	37	33	6
Mean Ranks	0	46.54	44.07	44.52	50.08
Chi-square = .338			p = .953		

Table 2

Kruskal-Wallis One Way Anova Using Number of Shared Preferences
(Dichotomous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured
by Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Source	0	1	2	3	4
Number of shared preferences	0	1	2	3	4
Number of cases	0	13	37	33	6
Mean ranks	0	51.46	44.18	41.16	54.42
Chi-square = 2.199			p = .532		

There is no significant difference in marital adjustment scores among couples grouped according to the number of shared preferences as measured by the dichotomous scores so hypothesis one cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis Two

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar in zero, one, two, three or four preferences based on the continuous scores of the MBTI as measured by the LWMAS or the DAS.

This hypothesis differs from hypothesis one only in that the number of shared preferences is determined by the continuous, not dichotomous scores of the MBTI. Spouses are considered similar on a preference if the difference in their continuous scores for that preference is less than two standard errors of measurement. The standard error of measurement was computed using this population's scores. The results for each preference are:

Preference	Two Standard Errors of Measurement
EI	24
SN	25
TF	19
JP	21

Tables 3 and 4 show the results when marital adjustment as measured by the LWMAS and DAS is analyzed among groups. The number of shared preferences is determined by continuous scores on the MBTI.

TABLE 3

Kruskal-Wallis One Way Anova Using Number of Shared Preferences (Continuous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured by Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Source	0	1	2	3	4
Number of shared preferences	0	1	2	3	4
Number of cases	6	25	36	21	1
Mean ranks	40.67	46.58	46.82	41.36	42.50
Chi-square = .868	<u>p</u> = .929				

TABLE 4

Kruskal-Wallis One Way Anova Using Number of Shared Preferences (Continuous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured by Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Source	0	1	2	3	4
Number of shared preferences	0	1	2	3	4
Number of cases	6	25	36	21	1
Mean ranks	35.92	45.96	49.01	39.71	42.00
Chi-square = 2.539	<u>p</u> = .638				

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment scores among couples grouped according to the number of shared preferences as measured by the continuous scores so hypothesis two can not be rejected.

Hypothesis Three

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are grouped according to similarity or difference on a preference based on dichotomous scores of the MBTI as measured by LWMAS and DAS.

For this hypothesis the independent variables are each preference instead of total type preferences which were used in the last two hypotheses. Tables 5 and 6 show the results when marital adjustment as measured by the LWMAS and DAS are analyzed when the couples are grouped according to whether they are similar or different on a preference. Dichotomous scores are used.

TABLE 5

Mann-Whitney U Test Using Similarity or Difference on a Preference (Dichotomous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured by Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Source			
Number of shared preferences on EI	0	1	
Number of cases	41	48	
Mean ranks	44.70	45.26	
U = 971.5	2-tailed p = .9180		
Number of shared preferences on SN	0	1	
Number of cases	29	60	
Mean ranks	47.64	43.72	
U = 793.5	2-tailed p = .5029		

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Number of shared preferences on TF	0	1
Number of cases	44	45
Mean ranks	46.17	43.86
U = 938.5	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .6725	
Number of shared preferences on JP	0	1
Number of cases	32	57
Mean ranks	43.92	45.61
U = 877.5	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .7679	

TABLE 6

Mann-Whitney U Test Using Similarity or Difference on a Preference (Dichotomous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured by Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Source		
Number of shared preferences on EI	0	1
Number of cases	41	48
Mean Rank	44.70	45.26
U = 971.5	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .9180	
Number of shared preferences on SN	0	1
Number of cases	29	60
Mean rank	47.64	43.72
U = 793.5	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .5029	

TABLE 6 (Continued)

Number of shared preferences on TF	0	1
Number of cases	44	45
Mean rank	46.17	43.86
U = 039.5	2-tailed p = .6725	
Number of shared preferences on JP	0	1
Number of cases	32	57
Mean rank	43.92	45.61
U = 877.5	2-tailed p = .7679	

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between groups, similar or different on any preference when dichotomous scores are used, so hypothesis three can not be rejected.

Hypothesis Four

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are grouped according to similarity or difference on a preference based on continuous scores of the MBTI as measured by the LWMAS or the DAS.

This hypothesis differs from hypothesis three only in that the similarity or difference on a preference is determined by continuous scores (note page 89 for discussion of how this is determined). Tables 7 and 8 show the results when marital adjustment as measured by the LWMAS and DAS are analyzed. The couples are grouped according to whether they are similar or different on a preference and continuous scores are used.

TABLE 7

Mann-Whitney U Test Using Similarity or Difference on a Preference (Continuous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured Locke - Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Source			
Number of shared preferences on EI	0	1	
Number of cases	51	38	
Mean rank	45.71	44.05	
$U = 933.0$	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .7652		
Number of shared preferences on SN	0	1	
Number of cases	39	50	
Mean rank	46.73	43.65	
$U = 907.5$	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .5766		
Number of shared preferences on TF	0	1	
Number of cases	57	32	
Mean rank	46.27	42.73	
$U = 839.5$	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .5353		
Number of shared preferences on JP	0	1	
Number of cases	45	44	
Mean rank	44.60	45.41	
$U = 972.0$	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .8825		

TABLE 8

Mann-Whitney U Test Using Similarity or Difference on a Preference (Continuous Scores) and Marital Adjustment Scores as Measured by Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Source			
Number of shared preferences on EI	0	1	
Number of cases	51	38	
Mean rank	45.91	43.78	
U = 922.5	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .6996		
Number of shared preferences on SN	0	1	
Number of cases	39	50	
Mean rank	45.68	44.47	
U = 948.5	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .8265		
Number of shared preferences on TF	0	1	
Number of cases	57	32	
Mean rank	44.56	45.78	
U = 887.0	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .8307		
Number of shared preferences on JP	0	1	
Number of cases	45	44	
Mean rank	45.54	44.45	
U = 966.0	2-tailed <u>p</u> = .8438		

There are no significant differences in marital adjustment between groups similar or different on any preference so hypothesis four can not be rejected.

Hypothesis Five

There are no significant differences in attitude scores on any of the items of the LWMAS and DAS when the couples are divided according to similarity or difference on each preference using dichotomous MBTI scores.

For this hypothesis, items 20 through 56 on the questionnaire (Appendix C) are considered separately. Four groups are formed using all possible pairings of husband and wife, e.g., both Es, wife E and husband I, wife I and husband E, and both Is. The attitude score used in the analyses is the sum of the wife's and husband's attitude scores. For many items the number of cases is less than 89 as some participants did not report an attitude response for the item.

With 37 one way analyses of variance conducted for each preference, it could be expected that by chance ($p = .05$) there would be 1.85 analyses which would produce significant results. There are significant differences on zero items on the TF preference, on two items for the EI preference, on two items for SN preference and 11 on JP preference (see Tables 22-24, Appendix F). Through further analyses of the 11 items for which there are significant differences when the JP preference is used, results of the Scheffe procedure show only seven significant differences are retained (items 23, 29, 34, 39, 42, 44, and 54 [$p = .05$, df = (3,60)]). When the independent variable is the EI, SN, or TF preferences, hypothesis five cannot be rejected but for the JP preference hypothesis five can be rejected.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter contains two major sections. In the first section there will be a discussion of the results. This will be done by first considering effects that the distribution of types and overall marital adjustment level of the population may have on the results of the study and then the answers to the four questions purposed by the study. In the second section there will be a discussion of the limitations of the study and implications for future research.

Discussion of the Results

This population of spouses has approximately equal numbers of extraverts and introverts, and of sensing and intuitive types, with equal representation from both sexes. For the total population, there are more thinking types than feeling types with more males preferring thinking and more females preferring feeling, as is almost always the case with MBTI samples. For both sexes there are many more judging than perceptive types. This distribution is somewhat atypical for students at the University of Florida, based on a comparison of the sample type distribution with that of all entering students at the University of Florida tested in 1972. The present sample has significantly more thinking types and judging types for both males and females. It may well be that the bias comes from the types of couples in married housing. The couples include more of the types who value analytical objectivity, and are attracted to the sciences, technology and business and relatively fewer of the types who

are most interested in the humanities and the behavioral sciences, and are the flexible and independent, humanistic people. The bias may also stem from the fact that more of the thoughtful, dependable types met their commitments to participate, while the spontaneous people did not. While no type differences in response sets are yet available, it should be kept in mind that many of this sample can typically be expected to take a detached, analytical view towards events, possibly including their marriage and the filling in of questionnaires.

The mean marital adjustment score on the LWMAS and on the DAS are above or nearly the same as the means found in other studies which did not separate adjusted and maladjusted couples (Aller, 1962, Bergen & Bergen, 1978; Spanier, 1976; Williams, Note 3). If low marital adjustment is defined as being one SD below the means of the population, 11 percent of the spouses in the study report low marital adjustment. Ten percent of the population is classified as having high marital adjustment (one SD above the means of the population). In a normal distribution it would be expected that 16.6 percent of the populations would be classified as low-adjusted and 16.6 percent as high-adjusted. The low variance could be a contributing factor in the lack of significant findings on the hypotheses.

There are four questions which the study sought to answer. The first two questions are answered by the five hypotheses. Questions three and four are answered based on descriptive information gathered from the data. The questions will be discussed separately:

1. Is there a relationship between marital adjustment and the number of preferences on which the spouses are similar and/or

is there a relationship between marital adjustment and the similarity or differences of the spouses on a particular preference when similarity is defined a) by dichotomous scores and b) by continuous scores?

2. Are there particular problems which seem to result when there is a difference in spouses on particular preferences?
3. Are there particular types who report higher or lower marital adjustment regardless of the type of their spouses?
4. Are their combinations of particular types which rank higher on marital adjustment than other combinations?

Question One

The results of hypothesis one show there are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar in zero, one, two, three, or four preferences when dichotomous scores are used. The amount of similarity was determined by totaling the number of preferences on which the spouses' choices lie in the same direction.

Other studies have used dichotomous scores of couples when they studied marital adjustment of personality types. Williams (Note 3) and Gosse (1979) found that there were no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples grouped according to the number of shared preferences. However Williams (Note 3) did find that when those couples sharing zero preferences were compared to all others, this group reported significantly lower marital adjustment. It is impossible to test this result on the present population as there are no couples who are dissimilar on all four preferences when dichotomous scores are used. Myers'

(Note 2) and Breimeier's (Note 1) couples were defined as well-adjusted (rated as such by persons who knew them) or as maladjusted (sought marital counseling). They both concluded that well-adjusted couples tended to be similar but not totally similar (one, two, or three preferences the same). They found that maladjusted couples tended to share zero or four preferences. The results of this study show that there appears to be a selection process and that very few people who choose to marry are alike on all four preferences (only 7 percent of the couples) nor are they alike on none of the preferences (0 percent of the couples. Winch's contention (1955, 1958) is that those with opposite needs tend to marry but this is only partially supported by the results of the present study. Over 70 percent of the spouses chose to marry someone who is similar to them on two or three preferences which means they are at least as similar as they are different. However some difference (oppositeness) is desired since there are very few couples who are similar on all four preferences.

Results of hypothesis two are similar: there are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar on zero, one, two, three or four preferences when continuous scores are used. The purpose of defining similarity using continuous scores is that it allows for the strength of a person's preference to be taken into consideration. Similarity was determined by totaling the number of preferences on which the difference between the spouses' continuous scores were less than two standard errors of measurement, e.g., if the EI score for the wife was 96 and for the husband 101, then the difference is less than two standard

errors of measurement so they would be considered similar on this preference. (Notice that on hypothesis one this same couple would not have been considered similar on this preference as the wife is an E and the husband an I.)

The results of hypotheses one and two are based on analyses using the Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance. This nonparametric test was used as the cell sizes and group variances were so varied. Since the Kruskal-Wallis test loses only 5 percent of the power of an analysis of variance, these hypotheses probably could not have been rejected had an analysis of variance been used, as the significance levels did not approach .05. On the basis of these analyses it can be concluded that one cannot predict marital adjustment from the number of preferences that a couple shares.

According to the results on hypotheses three, there are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar or different on EI, SN, TF, or JP preferences when dichotomous scores are used. Gosse (1979) obtained the same result. The results of hypothesis four are similar: there are no significant differences in marital adjustment among couples who are similar or different on EI, SN, TF, or JB preferences when continuous scores are used.

Mann Whitney U tests rather than t-tests were used to obtain these results. The power of this test is only 5 percent less than a t-test. Since none of the significance levels approach .05, it is doubtful that even if t-tests had been used there would have been any significant difference. The conclusion is that one cannot predict a couple will

experience more marital adjustment based on similarity or difference on a preference.

Question Two

For hypothesis five, on each preference, 37 analyses of variance were performed to determine if similarity or difference of spouses on a preference relates to certain potential problem areas. Using dichotomous scores, four groups are formed for each preference, e.g., on the JP preference the groups are both P, wife P and husband J, wife J and husband P, and both J. The items on the LWMAS and DAS provide the potential problem areas. From results of past research these areas have distinguished adjusted from maladjusted couples (Locke-Wallace, 1959; Spanier, 1976). The individuals in this study were asked to rate how positively or negatively they felt their marital relationship was affected by the particular question being questioned. Using the EI, SN, and TF preferences there are not enough items for which there are significant differences in the group means to predict that there are particular matchings on these preferences which seem to result in more difficulties in dealing with certain aspects of the marital relationship. However on the JP preference there does appear to be some significant differences in the areas of what is good and proper conduct (item 23), making major decisions (item 29), establishing important aims and goals (item 34), handling disagreements (item 39), feelings about being married (item 42), confiding in each other (item 44), and frequency of kissing (item 54) (see Appendix C for items).

Major decision making, aims and goals believed important, confiding in mate and the amount of kissing shared are areas in which the means and

confidence interval for the mean indicate that for the groups wife P and husband J, wife J and husband P, and both J, there are positive to very positive influences on the couple's relationship which result from the way they are handled. The couples who both prefer P, on the whole, report a neutral or moderate positive effect on their relationship. The style of handling what is proper conduct and the desire to remain in the marriage seem to affect the relationship of couples in which the wife prefers P and the husband J or both J more positively than couples who both prefer P or the wife prefers J and the husband P. If the wife is a J and the husband a P, there is more chance that the couples will experience a neutral effect rather than a positive effect as a result of one of them giving in during a disagreement rather than solving the problem through give and take.

In summary, although there are some significant differences in seven areas of marital adjustment when the JP preference is used to form the groups, the differences are mostly dependent on the degree of positive effect. The attitude scores do not indicate any group is experiencing a substantial negative effect on their relationship although couples in which both spouses prefer P consistently score lower than do the other groups. Since the number of couples in all groups except both J are small (less than 20), these results would be considered only as trends until further data are obtained.

Question Three

The answer to this question was sought through analyses of variance of the mean marital adjustment of each of the 16 personality types and through a ranking of the types according to their mean marital adjustment

scores. The results of the Anovas show there are no significant differences in the marital adjustment of the 16 types. These results are the same as those obtained by Williams (Note 3). When the ranking of the types, according to marital adjustment, is examined, only minor patterns emerge.

Question Four

A search was made to see if any particular combinations of types report greater or less marital adjustment than other combinations. The results are not conclusive, but a few trends do exist. No couples in which both spouses are Is report high MA (defined as both spouses being one standard deviation above the mean [of this sample population] on MA scores). On the other end of the scale, most of the low adjusted couples (both scoring one standard deviation below the mean on MA scores) are different on the TF preference. Williams' study (Note 3) supports both of these observations. Since there are only four (LWMAS) or six (DAS) couples who classify as high adjusted and only eight (LWMAS) or six (DAS) couples who classify as low adjusted, these results must be considered as tentative until data are available on more couples.

Summary

The students and spouses who participated in this study indicate a fairly high level of marital adjustment as the average MA is 121.84 on the LWMAS and 110.81 on the DAS. The range of MA of the 16 personality types is 101.0-130.1 and 95.8-114.4 on the DAS with over 50 percent of the types scoring above the mean on the LWMAS. The results of Anovas show there are no significant differences in the mean MA of the 16 types.

Therefore it is concluded that in this student population no types are more likely to experience higher MA than other types when total type is used.

The results of this study do not support the use of similarity or difference of personality types as a predictor of marital adjustment as measured by the LWMAS and DAS. It appears that all types can marry each other and report a satisfying relationship. However, there is evidence that only a small percent of people marry someone who is totally opposite or totally similar in personality preferences.

From the analyses on all the items of the LWMAS and DAS, the results do not support the contention that being similar or being different on EI, SN, or TF preference increases the probability that a couple will experience a problem in any one of these areas. They do, however, suggest that in a few areas, if both spouses prefer P, there is more of a chance that the relationship will not be positively affected by their style of dealing with these aspects of the marital relationship.

Limitations of the Study and Implications for Future Research

The couples in the study are all part of a college student population and therefore the results are only generalizable to similar college populations. There are only 89 couples who completed all the forms, and this is a relatively small number when there are 16 personality types which need to be represented. In this population there are few people who prefer perceiving over judging (only 29 percent) which means that some possible marital combinations are missing or represented by only one or two cases.

In a future study it may be advisable to use only the attitude responses with the items on the LWMAS or DAS. The correlations between the attitude inventory and the LWMAS was $r = .81$ and the DAS was $r = .83$. This would make the attitude inventory a valid substitution for either the LWMAS or DAS and would permit participants to indicate their perception of the extent to which certain areas affect their marital adjustment/satisfaction. More significant results may be obtained if questions were asked which related more closely to areas in which clinicians have noticed there are problems when certain preferences are paired.

Since the correlation between the LWMAS and DAS was very high ($r = .84$) either scale could be used to measure marital adjustment with the assumption that the same construct was being measured. One might choose to use the LWMAS when a short questionnaire is needed and the DAS when any item is to be done, as it covers more areas of marital interactions.

In order to test the hypothesis that those similar on zero or four preferences tend to be in the low-adjusted group there needs to be a comparison between a general sample and a low-adjusted sample (couples recently separated or divorced or couples seeking marital counseling). Within these groups there should be some control on the length of marriage and the number of children present in the marriage as studies, including the present one, have shown both these factors relate significantly to marital adjustment.

Most of the couples in this study had been married five years or less. Since past studies (Rollins and Feldman, 1970) have shown that the length of marriage does influence the amount of marital adjustment reported,

a study involving people married for more than five years may show there are some significant differences in marital adjustment based on personality types.

The Type Indicator is concerned with different ways of looking at life, different ways of decision-making, and different attitudes toward action and contemplation. A useful future study would be to focus in on these aspects of a marriage with some specificity, trying to learn how couples in high-adjusted and low-adjusted or dissolving marriages deal with the specific differences in their marriages, and how they experience similarity. Studies relating to general emotional adjustment or maladjustment, along with type differences, may show differences not observable in the present data. It may well be that more mature couples can tolerate greater differences than couples with less maturity.

APPENDIX A
CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

I give permission for the results on my MBTI and Marital Questionnaire to be used in a research project being conducted by Margaret Wentworth. I understand that only Ms. Wentworth will see the results of the MBTI and MQ unless I give her permission to share these results with any other person. I realize that in reporting the data there will be no way my identity will be known. I also realize I may withdraw from this study at any time and will not receive any money for my participation.

I have read and I understand the procedures described above. I agree to participate in the procedures and I have received a copy of this description.

Signatures:

Subject

Witness

Margaret Wentworth 1709 NE Terrace
Gainesville, Florida

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN STUDY

Dear Couple:

I would like to thank you for participating in this research project. As a participant you will receive a free computer print out describing your personality type and you will be able to attend a group or individual feedback session I will conduct. In this session the results of the Myers-Briggs Type indicator will be discussed. You will have the opportunity to learn a little more about yourself and your relationship to your spouse. Besides this you will also be helping me gather information on the contentments and stresses experienced in marriage. It is my hope that I and other counselors will use this information in counseling couples by helping them see how similarities and differences in type affect their marital relationship.

You are going to be asked to complete the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, an instrument which measures personality preferences, and a Marital Questionnaire, an instrument which measures satisfaction with various aspects of marital relationships. It is very important that you answer these questions as honestly as you can so as to reflect how the marriage is for you NOW.

Directions:

Please take the MBTI after carefully reading the directions on the back of the answer sheet. Please do not discuss the Indicator with your spouse until both of you have completed it. The MBTI usually takes 45-50 minutes to complete.

After you are through with this you should read the directions and answer the questions on the Marital Questionnaire. Once again, please do not discuss your answers with your spouse until you both have completed it. The questionnaire will take 15-20 minutes to complete.

Also included is an optional section to the questionnaire. It would be greatly appreciated if you would answer these questions but that is not absolutely necessary for this study.

Thank you for your assistance,
/s/
Margaret Wentworth

APPENDIX C

Marital Adjustment Questionnaire

Please put an X in the appropriate space.

1. Is this your first marriage? () yes () no
2. At what age did you enter this marriage? () under 21 () 21-25 () 26-30 () 31-40 () 41-50 () over 50
3. How long have you been married to your present spouse? () less than one year () 1-5 years () 6-10 () 11-20 () 21-30 () over 30
4. How many children are now living at home? () none () one () two () three () four () more than four
5. During this marriage, have you ever had children living with you? () yes () no
6. The occupational category which best describes what the major breadwinner in your childhood family did for a living:
() professional or technical () manager, official or proprietor () salesperson, clerical worker () craftsman, foreman
() operators or equipment, carpenter () private household, service worker (waitress, waiters, etc.) () all farm workers
() nonfarm laborers
7. Did your parents divorce while you lived at home? () yes () no
8. Did your parents divorce after you left their home? () yes () no

For each of the following questions, please place an X on the line under the heading which best describes your opinion or feeling:

	Extremely	Somewhat	Slightly	Neither	Slightly	Somewhat	Extremely
9. With my mother, as I was growing up, I mostly felt: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. With my mother, NOW, I mostly feel: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. With my father, as I was growing up, I mostly felt: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. With my father NOW, I mostly feel: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. I consider my childhood to have been	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
14. I consider myself NOW to be	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
15. I believe my spouse's childhood was	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
17. I consider my parents' marriage to be	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
18. I consider my spouse's parents' marriage to be ..	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
19. I consider my own marriage NOW to be....	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY

In the following section, please describe each activity in two ways:

In Section A, put an X on the line under the heading that best describes how much you and your mate agree NOW on the matters listed.

In Section B, circle the symbol, that best tells whether this activity has a positive or negative effect on your relationship. Use this scale:

++ frequently or mostly has a positive effect = Seems to have little or no effect = Sometimes has a negative effect
+ sometimes has a positive effect = Frequently or mostly has a negative effect

Effect on the Relationship

ACTIVITY	Always agree	Almost Always agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost: Always Disagree	Always Disagree
20. Showing affection	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
21. Friends	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
22. Sex relations	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
23. What is right, good proper conduct	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
24. Philosophy of life	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
25. Dealing with in-laws	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
26. Recreation	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
27. Handling family finances	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
28. Amount of time spent together	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
29. Making major decisions	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
30. Household tasks	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
31. Leisure time interests and activities	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
32. Career decisions	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
33. Religious matters	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
34. Aims, goals, and things believed important	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

In this section, Section A is used to indicate the frequency of events in the marriage. Section B is answered the same as in the section above.

EVENTS IN YOUR MARRIAGE	Never	Less than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Once a Day	More Often
35. Share physical affection	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
36. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
37. Calmly discuss something	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
38. Work together on a project	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
39. When disagreements arise, they usually end by () Husband giving in () Wife giving in () Agreement by mutual give and take	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

40. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together	<input type="checkbox"/>	all of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	some of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	very few of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	none of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-	-				
41. In your leisure time, do you usually prefer to be	<input type="checkbox"/>	on the go	<input type="checkbox"/>	stay home	<input type="checkbox"/>	on the go	<input type="checkbox"/>	stay home	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-	-				
42. How often do you wish you had not married?	<input type="checkbox"/>	frequently	<input type="checkbox"/>	occasionally	<input type="checkbox"/>	rarely	<input type="checkbox"/>	never	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-	-				
43. If you had your life to live over, do you think you would:	<input type="checkbox"/>	marry the same person	<input type="checkbox"/>	marry a different person	<input type="checkbox"/>	not marry at all	<input type="checkbox"/>	never	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-	-				
44. Do you confide in your mate:	<input type="checkbox"/>	almost never	<input type="checkbox"/>	rarely	<input type="checkbox"/>	in most things	<input type="checkbox"/>	in everything	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-	-				
These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks.																		
45. Being too tired for sex.	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	46. Not abiding love.	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>													
Please put an X in the space which indicates how frequently the following events happen.																		
47. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	<input type="checkbox"/>	All the time	<input type="checkbox"/>	Most of the time	<input type="checkbox"/>	More often than not	<input type="checkbox"/>	Occasionally	<input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
48. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
49. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
50. Do you confide in your mate?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
51. Do you ever regret that you married?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
52. How often do you and your partner quarrel?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
53. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
54. Do you kiss your mate?	<input type="checkbox"/>	Every Day	<input type="checkbox"/>	Occasionally	<input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/>	Never	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
55. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	<input type="checkbox"/>	All of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	Most of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	Very few of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	None of them	<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-			
56. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?	 I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does. I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does. I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does. It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed. My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.													<input type="checkbox"/>	++	+	=	-

OPTIONAL SECTION

For the following questions please circle the response which best describes yourself, your mate, and the effect your similarity or difference on that item has on your relationship.

		How often I am like the description		How often my mate is like the description		How I feel this difference or similarity effects our relationship	
		++ all the time	+ very often	= sometimes	- seldom	- never	++ frequently positively
	Description						+ occasionally positively
							+ little or no effect
							- occasionally negatively
							-- frequently negatively
1.	Keeps things picked up and orderly at home	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
2.	Does things at the last moment	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
3.	Has more projects going than can handle	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
4.	Sees things that need to be done and does them	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
5.	Prefers to work around the house with someone	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
6.	Prefers to be assigned jobs and then left to do them by themselves when the time is right	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
7.	Works quickly and somewhat unmethodically on household jobs	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
8.	Prefers to have a few (compared to a variety) activities which take up most of non-working time	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
9.	Engages in activities and hobbies alone	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
10.	When engages in recreational activities prefers the physically active to being a spectator	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
11.	When engages in recreational activities prefers cultural activities to others	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
12.	Brings new approaches into sexual activities	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
13.	Initiates activities we engage in	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
14.	Before making decisions likes to check them out with other people	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
15.	Once a decision has been made, finds it difficult to change it	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
16.	Finds self making decisions and then changing their mind if something new enters the picture	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
17.	Understands the feelings behind the words	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
18.	Shares problems as they are being worked through	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
19.	Shares problems after they have been pretty well worked through	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
20.	When talks, does not waste words	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --
21.	When talks, seems wordy or talks around the point	++	+	=	--	--	++ + = --

22. When talked to often seems to be off in own world and does not hear what is being said ++ + - - -

23. Manages money (bills, taxes, etc.) ++ + - - -

24. Shows rather than hides feelings/emotions ++ + - - -

25. Keeps feelings to self--does not share feelings ++ + - - -

26. Seems steadfast (stable, can predict this persons thought and actions) ++ + - - -

27. Sees full of energy ++ + - - -

28. Is sentimental about events and things ++ + - - -

29. Has need for private time and thoughts ++ + - - -

30. Has an easy time meeting and being with people ++ + - - -

APPENDIX D

Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale with Scoring Weighted

Please put an X in the appropriate space.

1. Is this your first marriage? () yes () no
2. At what age did you enter this marriage? () under 21 () 21-25 () 26-30 () 31-40 () 41-50 () over 50
3. How long have you been married to your present spouse? () less than one year () 1-5 years () 6-10 () 11-20 () 21-30 () over 30
4. How many children are now living at home? () none () one () two () three () four () more than four
5. During this marriage, have you ever had children living with you? () yes () no
6. The occupational category which best describes what the major breadwinner in your childhood family did for a living:
() professional or technical () manager, official or proprietor () salesperson, clerical worker () craftsman, foreman
() operators or equipment, carpenter () private household, service worker (waitress, firemen, etc.) () all farm workers
() nonfarm laborers
7. Did your parents divorce while you lived at home? () yes () no
8. Did your parents divorce after you left their home? () yes () no

For each of the following questions, please place an X on the line under the heading which best describes your opinion or feeling:

Extremely	Somewhat	Slightly	Neither	Slightly	Somewhat	Extremely
9. With my mother, as I was growing up, I mostly felt: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	DISTANT
10. With my mother, NOW, I mostly feel: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	DISTANT
11. With my father, as I was growing up, I mostly felt: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	DISTANT
12. With my father NOW, I mostly feel: CLOSE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	DISTANT
13. I consider my childhood to have been	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
14. I consider myself NOW to be	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
15. I believe my spouse's childhood was	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
17. I consider my parent's marriage to be	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
18. I consider my spouse's parents' marriage to be ..	HAPPY	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNHAPPY
19. I consider my own marriage NOW to be	HAPPY	35	25	20	15	7

In the following section, please describe each activity in two ways:

In Section A, put an X on the line under the heading that best describes how much you and your mate agree NOW on the matters listed.

In Section B, circle the symbol, that best tells whether this activity has a positive or negative effect on your relationship. Use this scale:

++ frequently or mostly has a positive effect
+ sometimes has a positive effect

= Seems to have little or no effect
- Sometimes has a negative effect
-- Frequently or mostly has a negative effect

Effect on the Relationship

ACTIVITY	Always agree	Almost agree	Always agree	Effect on the Relationship				
				Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always	Always	Disagree
20. Showing affection	8	6	4	4	2	1	0	0
21. Friends	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0
22. Sex relations	12	12	9	4	1	0	0	0
23. What is right, good proper conduct	5	11	3	2	1	0	0	0
24. Philosophy of life	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0
25. Dealing with In-laws	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0
26. Recreation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
27. Handling family finances	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
28. Amount of time spent together	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
29. Making major decisions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
30. Household tasks	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
31. Leisure time interests and activities	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
32. Career decisions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
33. Religious matters	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
34. Aims, goals, and things believed important	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

In this section, Section A is used to indicate the frequency of events in the marriage. Section B is answered the same as in the section above.

EVENTS IN YOUR MARRIAGE

EVENTS IN YOUR MARRIAGE	Never	Less than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Once a Day	More Often	Effect on the Relationship		
							++	+	=
35. Share physical affection	—	—	—	—	—	—	++	+	=
36. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—	++	+	=
37. Calmly discuss something	—	—	—	—	—	—	++	+	=
38. Work together on a project	—	—	—	—	—	—	++	+	=
39. When disagreements arise, they usually end by (0) Husband giving in (2) Wife giving in (10) Agreement by mutual give and take	—	—	—	—	—	—	++	+	=

APPENDIX E

Dyadic Adjustment Scale with Continuous Unit Scoring

Please put an X in the appropriate space.

1. Is this your first marriage? () yes () no
2. At what age did you enter this marriage? () under 21 () 21-25 () 26-30 () 31-40 () 41-50 () over 50
3. How long have you been married to your present spouse? () less than one year () 1-5 years () 6-10 () 11-20 () 21-30 () over 30
4. How many children are now living at home? () none () one () two () three () four () more than four
5. During this marriage, have you ever had children living with you? () yes () no
6. The occupational category which best describes what the major breadwinner in your childhood family did for a living:
() professional or technical () manager, official or proprietor () salesperson, clerical worker () craftsman, foreman
() operators or equipment, carpenter () private household, service worker (waitress, firemen, etc.) () all farm workers
() nonfarm laborers
7. Did your parents divorce while you lived at home? () yes () no
8. Did your parents divorce after you left their home? () yes () no

For each of the following questions, please place an X on the line under the heading which best describes your opinion or feeling:

	Extreme	Somewhat	Slightly	Neither	Slightly	Somewhat	Extremely
9. With my mother, as I was growing up, I mostly felt: CLOSE							DISTANT
10. With my mother, NOW, I mostly feel:	CLOSE						DISTANT
11. With my father, as I was growing up, I mostly felt: CLOSE							DISTANT
12. With my father NOW, I mostly feel:	CLOSE						DISTANT
13. I consider my childhood to have been	HAPPY						UNHAPPY
14. I consider myself NOW to be	HAPPY						UNHAPPY
15. I believe my spouse's childhood was	HAPPY						UNHAPPY
17. I consider my parents' marriage to be	HAPPY						UNHAPPY
18. I consider my spouse's parents' marriage to be ..	HAPPY						UNHAPPY
19. I consider my own marriage NOW to be....	HAPPY	6	5	4	3	2	1 0 UNHAPPY

In the following section, please describe each activity in two ways:

In Section A, put an X on the line under the heading that best describes how much you and your mate agree NOW on the matters listed.

In Section B, circle the symbol, that best tells whether this activity has a positive or negative effect on your relationship. Use this scale:

++ frequently or mostly has a positive effect = Seems to have little or no effect - Sometimes has a negative effect
+ sometimes has a positive effect + Frequently or mostly has a negative effect

SECTION B
Effect on the Relationship

ACTIVITY	Always agree	Almost Always agree	Almost Agree	Always disagree	Frequently		Almost: Always		Always	
					Occasionally	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
20. Showing affection	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
21. Friends	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
22. Sex relations	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
23. What is right, good proper conduct	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
24. Philosophy of life	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
25. Dealing with in-laws	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
26. Recreation	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
27. Handling family finances	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
28. Amount of time spent together	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
29. Making major decisions	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
30. Household tasks	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
31. Leisure time interests and activities	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
32. Career decisions	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
33. Religious matters	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
34. Aims, goals, and things believed important	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0

In this section, Section A is used to indicate the frequency of events in the marriage. Section B is answered the same as in the section above.

EVENTS IN YOUR MARRIAGE	Never	Less than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Once a Day	More Often				
							++	+	=	--
35. Share physical affection	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
36. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
37. Calmly discuss something	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
38. Work together on a project	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
39. When disagreements arise, they usually end by () Husband giving in () Wife giving in () Agreement by mutual give and take							++	+	=	--

40. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together { } all of them { } some of them { } very few of them { } none of them { } ---

41. In your leisure time, do you usually prefer to be { } on the go { } stay home { } stay home In leisure time, does your mate prefer to be { } on the go { } stay home { } ---

42. How often do you wish you had not married? { } frequently { } occasionally { } rarely { } never { } ---

43. If you had your life to live over, do you think you would: { } marry the same person { } marry a different person { } not marry at all { } ---

44. Do you confide in your mate: { } almost never { } rarely { } in most things { } in everything { } ---

45. Being too tired for sex. Yes 1 No 0

46. Not showing love. Yes 1 No 0

Please put an X in the space which indicates how frequently the following events happen.

	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely
47. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	0	1	2	3	4
48. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	0	1	2	3	4
49. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	4	3	2	1	0
50. Do you confide in your mate?	4	3	2	1	0
51. Do you ever regret that you married?	0	1	2	3	4
52. How often do you and your partner quarrel?	0	1	2	3	4
53. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	0	1	2	3	4
54. Do you kiss your mate?	Every Day <u>4</u>	Almost Every Day <u>3</u>	Occasionally <u>2</u>	Rarely <u>1</u>	Never <u>0</u>
55. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	All of the time <u>4</u>	Most of the time <u>3</u>	Some of them <u>2</u>	Very few of them <u>1</u>	None of them <u>0</u>
56. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?	<p>5. I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.</p> <p>4. I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.</p> <p>3. I want very much for my relationship to succeed, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.</p> <p>2. It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.</p> <p>1. It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.</p> <p>0. My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.</p>				

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks.

APPENDIX F
Tables of Results

TABLE 9

Anova Summary, Means and Standard Deviation Using Number of Years Married and Marital Adjustment as Measured by Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Score

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Number of Years Married	3	4132.023	8.747*
Error	174	472.401	
* <u>p</u> < .001			
Number of Years Married	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
0	34	134.2647	11.0490
1-5	106	121.9906	21.4496
6-10	27	115.111	24.7485
11-20	11	98.6364	37.3317
Total	178	121.8483	23.1178

TABLE 10

Anova Summary, Means and Standard Deviation Using Number of Years Married and Marital Adjustment as Measured by Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Number of Years Married	3	979.261	5.705*
Error	174	171.662	
*p = .001			
Number of Years Married	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
0	34	115.6176	10.0333
1-5	106	111.5660	12.8715
6-10	27	107.4074	12.8849
11-20	11	98.0909	21.9884
Total	178	110.8764	13.6144

TABLE 11

Anova Summary, Means and Standard Deviation Using Number of Children and Marital Adjustment as Measured by Locke-Wallace Marital Scale

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Number of Children	3	2016.73	3.963
Error	174	508.872	
<u>*p</u> =			
Number of Children	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
0	116	123.6897	21.3054
1	34	123.000	24.4305
2	26	115.8462	25.7584
3	2	73.5000	7.7782
Total	178	121.8483	23.1178

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

Type Table

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF HUSBANDS AND WIVES BY TYPE

N = 178

SENSING TYPES INTUITIVE TYPES
 with THINKING with FEELING with FEELING with THINKING

ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
N = 21 % = 11.8	N = 17 % = 9.6	N = 15 % = 8.4	N = 16 % = 9.0
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
N = 4 % = 2.2	N = 6 % = 3.4	N = 6 % = 3.4	N = 14 % = 7.9
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
N = 4 % = 2.2	N = 4 % = 2.2	N = 4 % = 2.2	N = 10 % = 5.6
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
N = 17 % = 9.6	N = 10 % = 5.6	N = 12 % = 6.7	N = 18 % = 10.1

	Raw Score	Percent
JUDGING		
E 79	44.4	
I 99	55.6	
S 83	46.6	
N 95	53.4	
T 104	58.4	
F 74	41.6	
J 126	70.8	
P 52	29.2	
IJ 69	38.8	
IP 30	16.9	
EP 22	12.3	
EJ 57	32.0	
ST 46	25.8	
SF 37	20.8	
NF 37	20.8	
NT 38	32.6	
SJ 65	36.5	
SP 18	10.1	
NP 34	19.1	
NJ 61	34.3	
EXTRAVERTS		
PERCEPTIVE		
TJ 72	40.4	
TP 32	18.0	
FP 20	11.2	
FJ 54	30.3	
JUDGING		
IN 51	28.7	
EN 44	24.7	
IS 48	26.9	
ES 35	19.6	

NOTES:

TABLE 13

DISTRIBUTION OF WIVES BY TYPE

N = 89

SENSING TYPES				INTUITIVE TYPES				Raw Score	Percent
with THINKING		with FEELING		with FEELING		with THINKING			
ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ						
N = 9 % = 10.1	N = 14 % = 15.7	N = 9 % = 10.1	N = 5 % = 5.6						
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP						
N = 2 % = 2.2	N = 4 % = 4.5	N = 2 % = 2.2	N = 5 % = 5.6						
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP						
N = 1 % = 1.1	N = 4 % = 4.5	N = 2 % = 2.2	N = 3 % = 3.4						
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ						
N = 4 % = 4.5	N = 3 % = 3.4	N = 11 % = 12.4	N = 7 % = 7.9						
				JUDGING	INTROVERTS	PERCEPTIVE	EXTRAVERTS	PERCEPTIVE	JUDGING
E	39								
I	50								
S	45								
N	44								
T	36								
F	53								
J	66								
P	23								
IJ	37								
IP	13								
EP	10								
EJ	29								
ST	16								
SF	29								
NF	24								
NT	20								
SJ	34								
SP	11								
NP	12								
NJ	32								
TJ	25								
TP	11								
FP	12								
FJ	41								
IN	21								
EN	23								
IS	29								
ES	16								

NOTES:

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

Type Table

TABLE 14

DISTRIBUTION OF HUSBANDS BY TYPE

N = 89

SENSING TYPES				INTUITIVE TYPES				Raw Score	Percent
with THINKING with FEELING		with FEELING with THINKING		JUDGING	INTROVERTS	PERCEPTIVE			
ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ				N = 12 % = 13.5	N = 3 % = 3.4	
N = 12 % = 13.5	N = 3 % = 3.4	N = 6 % = 6.7	N = 11 % = 12.4					E 40	45.0
								I 49	55.0
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP					S 38	42.7
N = 2 % = 2.2	N = 2 % = 2.2	N = 4 % = 4.5	N = 9 % = 10.1					N 51	57.3
								T 68	76.4
								F 21	23.6
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP					J 60	67.4
N = 3 % = 3.4	N = 0 % = 0.0	N = 2 % = 2.2	N = 7 % = 7.9					P 29	32.6
								IJ 32	36.0
								IP 17	19.1
								EP 12	13.5
								EJ 28	31.5
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ					ST 30	33.7
N = 13 % = 14.6	N = 3 % = 3.4	N = 1 % = 1.2	N = 11 % = 12.4					SF 8	9.0
								NF 13	14.6
								NT 38	42.7
								SJ 31	34.8
								SP 7	7.9
								NP 22	24.7
								NJ 29	32.6
								TJ 47	52.8
								TP 21	23.6
								FP 8	9.0
								FJ 13	14.6
								IN 30	33.7
								EN 21	23.6
								IS 19	21.4
								ES 19	21.4

NOTES:

TABLE 15

Mean Marital Adjustment Rank (Low to High)
by Personality Types

<u>Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale</u>	<u>Dyadic Adjustment Scale</u>
ISFP	ISTP
ISTP	ISFP
*ENFP	ENTP
*ENTP	INFP
INFP	INTJ
ENFJ	ENFJ
INFJ	ENFP
ISTJ	INFJ
INTJ	ESTP
ESTJ	ESTJ
ENTJ	ISTJ
INTP	INTP
ESFP	ESFJ
ESTP	ISFJ
ESFJ	ENTJ
ISFJ	ESFP

* Tie.

TABLE 16

MEAN MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORES OF THE 16 PERSONALITY TYPES

<u>Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale</u>				<u>Dyadic Adjustment Scale</u>			
ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
124.1 N = 21	130.1 N = 17	118.1 N = 15	124.6 N = 16	113.3 N = 21	114.3 N = 17	110.1 N = 15	108.8 N = 16
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
101.0 N = 4	102.3 N = 6	115.0 N = 6	125.8 N = 14	95.8 N = 4	99.0 N = 6	107.5 N = 6	112.7 N = 14
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
128.0 N = 4	121.8 N = 4	109.0 N = 4	109.0 N = 10	111.2 N = 4	121.8 N = 4	110.0 N = 4	102.6 N = 10
ESTJ	ESEJ	ENEJ	ENTJ	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
125.0 N = 17	130.0 N = 10	117.5 N = 12	125.3 N = 18	112.0 N = 17	114.1 N = 10	109.8 N = 12	114.4 N = 18
Total number = 178 Range = 101.0 - 130.1				Total number = 178 Range = 95.8 - 114.4			

TABLE 17

Personality Types of Couples Whose Scores on Marital Adjustment Scales Are Both One Standard Deviation Above (High-Adjusted) or Below (Low-Adjusted) the Mean

Lock-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Low-Adjusted (Below the Mean)		High-Adjusted (Above the Mean)	
ENTP	ISFP		
INTJ	INFJ	ESTJ	ENFJ
ISTP	ISFP	ESFJ	ISFJ
ENTP	ENFJ	ENFJ	ISFP
INTJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	ENFP
ENFP	ENFJ		
ISTJ	ENFJ		
LSFP	ESFP		

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

ISFP	ENTP	ENTP	INTP
ISTJ	INFJ	ESFP	ENTJ
INFJ	INTJ	ENFJ	ISTJ
ENFJ	ISTJ	ISFP	ENFJ
ENFJ	ENTP	ESFP	INFJ
ISFP	ISTP	ISFJ	ESFJ

TABLE 18

Ranked Scores of Females on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Wife's LWMAS Score	Wife's Type Preference	Husband's Type Preference	Husband's LWMAS Score
46	ISFP	ENTP	39
67	INFJ	INTJ	40
74	ISFP	ISTP	57
77	ENFJ	ENFP	78
79	ENFJ	ENTJ	68
80	INTP	ENTP	105
82	ENFJ	ENTP	60
92	ESTJ	ENTP	107
96	ENFJ	ISTJ	84
99	ESFP	ISFP	98
99	ISTJ	INFP	58
101	INFJ	ISFP	109
103	INTJ	INFJ	119
103	ESFJ	ENTJ	91
104	ISTP	ESTJ	91
105	ENFJ	INFP	115
107	ISTJ	ISTP	103
107	ISFJ	ENTJ	128
108	INTJ	INTP	106
113	INFP	ENTP	125
114	ISFJ	ESTJ	124
115	ISTJ	INTJ	144
115	INFJ	INFJ	114
117	ESTJ	INTP	127
117	ISFJ	ESTJ	127
118	INTP	ENTJ	119
119	ENTP	ISTJ	126
119	INTJ	INTP	129
120	ENTJ	ISFJ	130
120	ENTP	INTJ	119

TABLE 18 (Continued)

120	INFJ	ENFP	62
121	ISTJ	INTP	92
122	INFJ	INTP	134
122	ESTJ	ISTJ	120
122	ESFJ	ESTP	130
123	ENTJ	ESFJ	118
123	ISTJ	ESTP	110
123	INFJ	ISFJ	112
126	INFJ	ISTJ	101
127	ESFJ	INFJ	82
127	ISFJ	ISTJ	122
127	ISFJ	ESTJ	118
127	INFJ	INFJ	123
128	ISFJ	ESFJ	138
129	ENFJ	ENTP	141
129	ISFJ	ISTJ	138
131	ISFJ	ESTJ	115
131	ENTJ	ENTJ	140
132	ESTP	ISTJ	134
132	ESFJ	ESTJ	106
132	INFJ	INTP	134
133	ENFJ	ESTJ	141
133	ISFP	ISTJ	115
133	INTP	INTJ	138
133	INFP	INTP	123
134	ESFP	ESTJ	133
135	ENTJ	INTJ	136
135	ESFJ	INTJ	136
136	ISTJ	ISTJ	121
136	ISFJ	INTJ	148
136	ESFP	INFJ	140
137	ENTJ	ESTJ	137
137	ENTJ	INTJ	126
137	INTJ	ENTP	132
137	INTP	ENTJ	119
137	ENFJ	ESTJ	140
138	ESFJ	ESTJ	135
138	ESFP	ENTJ	138
138	ENFJ	ENTJ	134
138	ISTJ	ISFJ	135

TABLE 18 (Continued)

139	INTJ	INTJ	142
139	INF _j	INFP	139
140	ENTJ	INFJ	144
140	ISTP	ESTP	140
140	ISFJ	INTP	140
140	ISFJ	ESTJ	143
140	ESTJ	ISTJ	151
141	ESFJ	ESFJ	119
142	ENTP	INTP	151
142	ISTJ	ENTJ	129
144	ENFJ	ISTJ	146
145	ISFJ	ISTJ	121
145	ISFJ	ESFJ	145
145	ENFJ	ESTS	145
147	ENFP	ENTJ	146
147	ISTJ	ENTJ	120
148	INTP	INFP	132
149	ISFJ	INTJ	140
149	ENFP	INTP	143
154	ISFP	ENFJ	145

TABLE 19

Ranked Scores of Males on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale

Husband's LWMAS Score	Husband's Type Preference	Wife's Type Preference	Wife's LWMAS Score
39	ENTP	ISFP	46
40	INTJ	INFJ	67
57	ISTP	ISFP	74
58	INFP	ISTJ	99
60	ENTP	ENFJ	82
62	ENFP	INFJ	120
68	ENTJ	ENFJ	79
78	ENFP	ENFJ	77
82	INFJ	ESFJ	127
84	ISTJ	ENFJ	96
91	ESTJ	ISTP	104
91	ENTJ	ESFJ	103
92	INTP	ISTJ	121
98	ISFP	ESFP	99
101	ISTJ	INFJ	126
103	ISTP	ISTJ	107
105	ENTP	INTP	80
106	ESTJ	ESFJ	132
106	INTP	INTJ	108
107	ENTP	ESTJ	92
109	ISFP	INFJ	101
110	ESTP	ISTJ	123
112	ISFJ	INFJ	123
114	INFJ	INFJ	115
115	ESTJ	ISFJ	131
115	ISTJ	ISFP	133
115	INFP	ENFJ	105
118	ESTJ	ISFJ	127
118	ESFJ	ENTJ	123
119	ESFJ	ESFJ	141
119	ENTJ	INTP	137
119	ENTJ	ESFP	118
119	INTJ	ENTP	120
119	INFJ	INTJ	103
120	ENTJ	ISTJ	147

TABLE 19 (Continued)

120	ISTJ	ESTJ	122
121	ISTJ	ISTJ	136
121	ISTJ	ISFJ	145
122	ISTJ	ISFJ	127
123	INTP	INFP	133
123	INFJ	INFJ	127
124	ESTJ	ISFJ	114
125	ENTP	INFP	113
126	ISTJ	ENTP	119
126	INTJ	ENTJ	137
127	ESTJ	ISFJ	117
127	INTP	ENTJ	117
128	ENTJ	ISFJ	107
129	ENTJ	ISTJ	142
129	INTP	INTJ	119
130	ESTP	ESFJ	122
130	ISFJ	ENTJ	120
132	ENTP	INTJ	137
132	INFP	INTP	148
133	ESTJ	ESFP	134
134	ENTJ	ENFJ	138
134	ISTJ	ESTP	132
134	INTP	INFJ	132
135	ESTJ	ESFJ	138
135	ISFJ	ISTJ	138
136	INTJ	ENTJ	135
136	INTJ	ESFJ	135
137	ESTJ	ENTJ	137
138	ESFJ	ISFJ	128
138	ENTJ	ESFP	138
138	ISTJ	ISFJ	129
138	INTJ	INTP	133
139	INFP	INFJ	139
140	ESTJ	ENFJ	137
140	ESTP	ISTP	140
140	ENTJ	ENTJ	131
140	INTJ	ISFJ	149
140	INTP	ISFJ	140
140	INFJ	ESFP	136
141	ESTJ	ENFJ	133

TABLE 19 (Continued)

141	ENTP	ENFJ	129
142	INTJ	INTJ	139
143	ESTJ	ISFJ	140
143	INTP	ENFP	149
144	INTJ	ISTJ	115
144	INFJ	ENTJ	140
145	ESTJ	ENFJ	145
145	ESFJ	ISFJ	145
145	ENFJ	ISFP	154
146	ENTJ	ENFP	147
146	ISTJ	ENFJ	144
148	INTJ	ISFJ	136
151	ISTJ	ESTJ	140
151	INTP	ENTP	142

TABLE 20

Ranked Scores of Females on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Wife's DAS Score	Wife's Type Preference	Husband's Type Preference	Husband's DAS Score
65	ISFP	ENTP	65
74	ISTJ	INFJ	88
78	INFJ	INTJ	82
79	ENFJ	ISTJ	92
82	INTP	ENTP	100
84	ENFJ	ENTP	78
85	ISFP	ISTP	81
94	ENFJ	ENFP	100
94	INTJ	INTP	99
97	ESTJ	ENTP	99
97	ISFJ	ESTJ	106
98	ENFJ	ENTJ	81
99	ESFP	ISFP	89
101	ESFJ	ENTJ	107
101	ISTJ	INTP	94
101	INFJ	INFJ	112
103	ISFJ	ESFJ	106
103	INTJ	INFJ	99
104	ENTP	ISTJ	111
104	INFP	ENTP	107
104	INFP	INTP	102
105	INFJ	ISTJ	115
106	ENTP	INTJ	101
106	ISTP	ESTP	120
106	INFP	ENFP	86
107	ESFJ	INFJ	94
107	ISTJ	ISTP	89
107	ISTP	ESTJ	103
107	INTP	ENTJ	105
108	ESTJ	ISTJ	103
108	ENTJ	ESFJ	103
109	ENTJ	INTJ	107
109	ENFJ	INFP	111
109	ISFJ	ESTJ	102
109	ISFJ	ESTJ	104

TABLE 20 (Continued)

110	ESTP	ISTJ	123
110	ENFJ	ESTJ	114
110	ENFJ	ESTJ	113
110	INTJ	INTJ	121
111	ESFJ	ESTP	104
111	INTJ	INTP	117
112	ESFJ	ESTJ	109
113	ENTJ	ISFJ	118
113	ISFJ	INTJ	123
113	ISFJ	ENTJ	114
114	INTP	INTJ	109
114	INFJ	ISFP	107
114	ISFJ	ISTJ	105
115	ESFJ	INTJ	116
115	INFJ	INFJ	108
116	ISFJ	ESTJ	105
117	ISTJ	INTJ	104
117	ISTJ	ESTP	111
117	ISFJ	ESTJ	123
117	INFJ	ISFJ	112
118	ESTJ	INTP	110
118	ESFJ	ESTJ	122
118	ISFJ	ISTJ	130
118	INFJ	INTP	119
119	ENFJ	ENTP	124
119	ISTJ	ISTJ	116
119	INTJ	ENTP	118
120	ISFJ	ISTJ	117
120	ISFJ	INTP	129
121	ENFJ	ENTJ	108
121	ISFJ	INTJ	118
121	INTP	ENTJ	110
122	ENTJ	ESTJ	117
122	ISTJ	ENTJ	117
122	ISFP	ISTJ	109
122	INFJ	INFP	121
123	ESFJ	ESFJ	117
123	ENTJ	INFJ	132
125	ENTJ	ENTJ	122
125	ENTJ	INTJ	119

TABLE 20 (Continued)

125	ENTP	INTP	131
125	ENFP	INTP	118
125	ISTJ	ENTJ	113
126	ESFP	ENTJ	134
126	ENFJ	ISTJ	129
126	ISFP	ENFJ	138
127	ESTJ	ISTJ	122
127	ISTJ	ISFJ	115
128	ESFP	INFJ	130
128	ISFJ	ESFJ	131
129	ENFP	ENTJ	123
130	ENFJ	ESTJ	123
134	ESFP	ESTJ	114
135	INTP	INFP	117

TABLE 21
Ranked Scores of Males on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Husband's DAS Score	Husband's Type Preference	Wife's Type Preference	Wife's DAS Score
65	ENTP	ISFP	65
78	ENTP	ENFJ	84
81	ENTJ	ENFJ	98
81	ISTP	ISFP	85
82	INTJ	INFJ	78
86	ENFP	INFJ	106
88	INFP	ISTJ	74
89	ISTP	ISTJ	107
89	ISFP	ESFP	99
92	ISTJ	ENFJ	79
94	INTP	ISTJ	101
94	INFJ	ESFJ	107
99	ENTP	ESTJ	97
99	INTP	INTJ	94
99	INFJ	INTJ	103
100	ENTP	INTP	82
100	ENFP	ENFJ	94
101	INTJ	ENTP	106
102	ESTJ	ISFJ	109
102	INTP	INFP	104
103	ESTJ	ISTP	107
103	ISTJ	ESTJ	108
103	ESFJ	ENFJ	108
104	ESTJ	ISFJ	109
104	ESTP	ESFJ	111
104	INTJ	ISTJ	117
105	ESTJ	ISFJ	116
105	ENTJ	INTP	107
105	ISTJ	ISFJ	114
106	ESTJ	ISFJ	97
106	ESFJ	ISFJ	103
107	ENTJ	ESFJ	101
107	ENTP	INFP	104
107	ISFP	INFJ	114
107	INTJ	ENTJ	109

TABLE 21 (Continued)

108	ENTJ	ENFJ	121
108	INFJ	INFJ	115
109	ESTJ	ESFJ	112
109	ISTJ	ISFP	122
109	INTJ	INTP	114
110	ENTJ	INTP	121
110	INTP	ESTJ	118
111	ESTP	ISTJ	117
111	ISTJ	ENTP	104
111	INFP	ENFJ	109
112	INFJ	INFJ	101
112	ISFJ	INFJ	117
113	ESTJ	ENFJ	110
11e	ENTJ	ISTJ	125
114	ESTJ	ENFJ	110
114	ESTJ	ESFP	134
114	ENTJ	ISFJ	113
115	ISTJ	INFJ	105
115	ISFJ	ISTJ	127
116	ISTJ	ISTJ	119
116	INTJ	ESFJ	115
117	ESTJ	ENTJ	122
117	ESFJ	ESFJ	123
117	ENTJ	ISTJ	122
117	ISTJ	ISFJ	120
117	INTP	INTJ	111
117	INFP	INTP	135
118	ENTP	INTJ	119
118	ISFJ	ENTJ	113
118	INFP	INFJ	121
118	INTP	ENFP	125
119	INFJ	ENTJ	125
119	INTP	INFJ	118
120	ESTP	ISTP	106
121	INTJ	INTJ	110
121	INFP	INFJ	122
122	ESTJ	ESFJ	118
122	ENTJ	ENTJ	125
122	ISTJ	ESTJ	127
123	ESTJ	ISFJ	117

TABLE 21 (Continued)

123	ESTJ	ENFJ	130
123	ENTJ	ENFP	129
123	INTJ	ESFP	110
123	INTJ	ISFJ	113
124	ENTP	ENFJ	119
129	ISTJ	ENFJ	126
129	INTP	ISFJ	120
130	ISTJ	ISFJ	118
130	INFJ	ESFP	128
131	ESFJ	ISFJ	128
131	INTP	ENTP	125
132	INFJ	ENTJ	123
134	ENTJ	ESFP	126
138	ENFJ	ISFP	126

TABLE 22

Summary of One-Way Means and Standard Deviations Using JP Preference and Attitude Scores

Item 21 - Friends

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between Groups	3	5.6318	2.742*
Within Groups	85	2.0542	
Total	88		

*p = .0482 Scheffe procedure result: no significance.

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	10	7.0000	1.5635
Wife P, husband J	13	7.8462	1.6251
Wife J, husband P	19	7.2632	1.9103
Both J	47	8.1277	1.0958
Total	89	7.7753	1.4752

Item 23 - What is right, good proper conduct

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	13.6590	4.317*
Within groups	85	3.1639	
Total	88		

*p = .0070 Scheffe procedure result: (4) > (3), p = .05.

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	6.6000	1.8379
Wife P, husband J	(2)	8.0769	1.4412
Wife J, husband P	(3)	6.5789	1.8353
Both J	(4)	8.0213	1.8236
Total	89	7.5618	1.8766

TABLE 22 (Continued)

Item 27 - Handling family finance

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	8.5022	2.816*
Within groups	85	3.0189	
Total	88		

* $p = .0440$ Scheffe procedure result is: no significance

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	10	7.1000	2.0248
Wife P, husband J	13	7.8462	1.4632
Wife J, husband P	19	6.5263	2.1439
Both J	47	7.8085	1.5553
Total	89	7.4607	1.7905

Item 29 - Making major decisions

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	7.0441	4.082*
Within groups	84	1.7256	
Total	87		

* $p = .0093$ Scheffe procedure result: (2) $>$ (1), $p = .05$

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	7.3000	2.0575
Wife P, husband J	(2)	9.2308	0.7250
Wife J, husband P	(3)	8.3158	0.9459
Both J	(4)	8.3478	1.3698
Total	88	8.3523	1.3817

TABLE 22 (Continued)

Item 34 - Aims, goals, and things believed important

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	7.0181	2.937*
Within groups	85	2.3897	
Total	88		

*p = .0379 Scheffe procedure result: (2) > (1), p = .05

Group		<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	10	7.6000	2.4129
Wife P, husband J	(2)	13	9.0000	0.9129
Wife J, husband P	(3)	19	7.8947	1.2865
Both J	(4)	47	8.7447	1.5529
Total		89	8.4719	1.5961

Item 39 - When disagreements arise, they usually end by a) wife giving in
b) husband giving c) mutual give and take

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	15.8662	5.717*
within groups	72	2.7753	
Total	75		

*p = .0014 Scheffe procedure result: (2) > (1); (2), (4) > (3), p = .05

Group		<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	9	7.4444	2.1858
Wife P, husband J	(2)	11	9.0000	1.1832
Wife J, husband P	(3)	16	6.5000	2.0976
Both J	(4)	40	8.1000	1.4465
Total		76	7.8158	1.8163

TABLE 22 (Continued)

Item 42 - How often do you wish you had not married ?.

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	13.7393	4.568*
Within groups	76	3.0077	
Total	88		

*p = .0054 Scheffé procedure result: (2) > (3), p = .05

Group		<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	10	6.5000	2.5495
Wife P, husband J	(2)	10	8.7000	1.0593
Wife J, husband P	(3)	19	6.6316	1.7388
Both J	(4)	41	7.7561	1.6245
Total		80	7.4500	1.8480

Item 44 - How often do you confide in your mate?

Source		<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups		3	4,8729	3.537*
Within groups		82	1.3777	
Total		85		

*p = .0182 Scheffé procedure result: (2), (4) > (3), p = .05.

Group		<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	10	7.8000	1.8738
Wife P, husband J	(2)	13	9.2308	1.1657
Wife J, husband P	(3)	19	8.7895	1.0842
Both J	(4)	44	9.0455	1.0105
Total		86	8.8721	1.2252

TABLE 22 (Continued)

Item 47 - How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or termination of your relationship?

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	14,0247	3.175*
Within groups	79	4.4175	
Total	82		

* $p = .0287$ Scheffe procedure result: no significance

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	10	6.2000	2.6162
Wife P, husband J	12	8.1667	2.0375
Wife J, husband P	18	6.3889	2.0619
Both J	43	7.6744	2.0086
Total	83	7.2892	2.1838

Item 49 - How often do you confide in your mate?

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	6.7642	3.082*
Within groups	79	2.1949	
Total	82		

* $p = .0321$ Scheffe procedure result: no significance

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	10	7.7000	2.3594
Wife P, husband J	13	9.4615	0.6602
Wife J, husband P	18	8.4444	1.4234
Both J	42	8.9048	1.4281
Total	83	8.7470	1.5369

TABLE 22 (Continued)

Item 54 - How often do you kiss your mate?

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	10.3385	5.652*
Within groups	83	1.8293	
Total	86		

*p = .0014 Scheffe procedure result: (2), (3), (4) > (1), p = .05

Group		<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both P	(1)	10	7.600	3.1693
Wife P, husband J	(2)	13	9.6154	0.6504
Wife J, husband P	(3)	19	9.2105	1.0842
Both J	(4)	45	9.4667	0.8944
Total		87	9.2184	1.4581

TABLE 23

Summary of One-Way Means and Standard Deviations Using EI Preference and Attitude Scores

Item 25 - Dealing with in-laws

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	11.5794	2.919*
Within groups	43	3.9664	
Total	86		

*p = .0389

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both I	29	6.2414	2.1155
Wife I, husband E	19	7.7368	1.7589
Wife E, husband I	20	6.9000	2.2919
Both E	19	7.6316	1.6401
Total	87	7.0230	2.0572

Item 42 - How often do you wish you had not married?

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	8.8280	2.757*
Within groups	76	3.2015	
Total	79		

*p = .0481

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both I	27	7.0370	1.8498
Wife I, husband E	19	7.0000	2.0276
Wife E, husband I	17	8.4706	1.6999
Both E	17	7.5882	1.4603
Total	80	7.4500	1.8480

TABLE 24

Summary of One-Way Means and Standard Deviations Using SN Preference and Attitude Scores

Item 28 - Amount of time spent together

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	12.9474	2.967
Within groups	84	4.3644	
Total	87		

*p = .0366

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both N	32	8.0938	2.0846
Wife N, Husband S	11	8.5455	1.7529
Wife S, Husband N	18	6.5000	2.5725
Both S	27	7.7778	1.8467
Total	88	7.7273	2.1588

Item 48 - How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Between groups	3	14.4314	4.375*
Within groups	76	3.2986	
Total	79		

*p = .0068

Group	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Both N	31	7.2903	1.7358
Wife N, Husband S	10	5.8000	2.6162
Wife S, Husband N	16	8.1250	1.5438
Both S	23	8.0435	1.6916
Total	80	7.4875	1.9291

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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Margaret's major professional interests are counseling, especially couples and groups, and teaching. She has two children, Kevin (16) and Neva (11).

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



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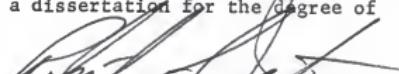
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